


1857

A Pictorial Presentation



PUBLICATIONS DIVISION



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Sepoys of Bengal Army

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PREFACE

THIS ALBUM has been planned to present a pictorial account of the Indian struggle of 1857 on the occasion of its centenary celebrations. It contains portraits of the Indian leaders of the revolt and sketches and pictures of important places and significant incidents connected with it. In the selection of material for the album an attempt has been made to obtain, as far as possible, contemporary sketches and drawings. In a few cases where contemporary materials were either not available or were unsuitable for reproduction, modern photographs have been used. Authenticity of the sketches has been another criterion in the selection.

The task of obtaining material suitable from the Indian point of view has been rather difficult. Illustrative material on the subject is mostly available in the works of British writers and artists. There are hardly any contemporary portraits or sketches made by Indian artists. It is fortunate that British artists, many of whom were in the thick of fighting, have left us their impressions of 1857-58 in pictures and sketches; but for them there would not have been any pictorial record of some of the historic events of those years. Their drawings, naturally, are not in keeping with the Indian sentiments. They shared the feelings of the other British residents of the time and their productions extol the deeds of the British, and the Indian people are often treated with derision. However, in the works of these contemporary artists we get authentic impressions of many places of significance in the struggle as well as certain incidents. The sketches were quite often prepared on the spot and in the midst of fighting.

It may also be pointed out that it is difficult to get authentic portraits of many of the Indian leaders of the revolt whereas a large number of portraits of British generals and statesmen of the period are available. It has been impossible to obtain a true likeness of even the Rani of Jhansi. Her available portraits are works of modern artists and do not conform to contemporary accounts of the Rani. Many of

the main characters have not been preserved on canvas at all and outstanding leaders like Maulvi Ahmadullah Shah, Shahzada Firuz Shah and Rana Beni Madho are absent from the album for this reason. Some of the important places connected with the struggle have also gone unrepresented. However, no effort has been spared to make the collection as representative as possible.

The illustrations have been arranged so as to tell a story. Notes have been added to the captions to help in the proper appreciation of the pictures. The introduction contains a short and simple account of the struggle; the details of the fighting have been omitted.

This publication owes much to the help and co-operation of many. Dr. S.N. Sen, the author of *Eighteen Fifty-Seven*, gave advice regarding its scope and the collection of material for it. Dr. Bisheshwar Prasad, Professor of History, University of Delhi, helped in the final selection of the pictures, and Dr. P. Saran of Delhi University read the manuscript of notes and the introduction and made valuable suggestions. Dr. V.G. Dighe, Research Officer, Ministry of External Affairs, translated the letter of Rani of Jhansi, the *facsimile* of which appears on page 61. The work of collection of material and its final presentation was done by Shri V.C. Joshi of the National Archives of India.

For access to the material included in this publication we are indebted to many libraries, museums and other institutions in India and the United Kingdom. We would like, in particular, to record our appreciation for the facilities afforded to us by the National Archives of India, New Delhi, the National Library, Calcutta, the Amir-ud-daula Public Library, Lucknow, and the United Services Institute, New Delhi. Our thanks are also due to the Governments of Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh and Bihar for the co-operation they have extended us. We are grateful to the publishers of old books from which many of the illustrations have been drawn.

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INTRODUCTION

THE RISING of 1857 was an important landmark in the history of India. It marked the beginning of the country's struggle for freedom after a century of uninterrupted foreign domination. The violent outbreak of the Sepoys at Meerut on the evening of 10 May was not a mutiny similar to those which had occurred earlier in the British Indian Army to ventilate certain local grievances of the soldiers. It did not remain an isolated incident. The rebellion soon spread beyond the Bengal Army and assumed the character of a general revolt, which was enthusiastically joined by the civil population of Hindustan. The country witnessed a popular upsurge of deep-seated and widespread bitterness against the alien rulers. The East India Company's Government was swept from large parts of North India and the very foundations of British rule were shaken. It appeared for some time that the Company's *Raj* had disappeared from the land.

What was the cause of this great convulsion? Some historians attribute it to the 'greased cartridge'. But it is unbelievable that such a vast and popular uprising could have been brought about merely by the new cartridge, howsoever offensive it might have been to the Sepoys. It was the immediate cause, the spark that set ablaze the smouldering fire of discontent. The basic causes of the revolt were complex, embracing all aspects of the impact of alien rule on Indian polity and society.

Ever since the battle of Plassey (June 1757) the Company's territorial power had been growing very fast. By 1818, when the last Peshwa was dethroned, practically all the Indian States had either been annexed or had entered into treaty alliances with the Company on humiliating conditions. The British had become the suzerain power and the Indian princes were mere puppets in their hands.

The policy of expansion did not stop there and the few independent principalities on the frontiers were also annexed whenever an opportunity presented itself. In 1843, Sind was attacked and added to the British dominion; it was an act of wanton aggression

to cover the terrible disaster which the British armies had suffered in the Afghan war. The revolt of Diwan Mulraj of Multan was used as a pretext for the annexation of the Punjab in 1849. The rights of the minor Maharaja, Dalip Singh, who was under the protection of the British, were set aside. Lord Dalhousie annexed States whenever an occasion arose and often in disregard of solemn engagements. Under his 'Doctrine of Lapse' the princes were denied the long-cherished right of adoption; in this way Dalhousie annexed the Maratha States of Satara, Nagpur and Jhansi and several minor principalities. On the death of the ex-Peshwa, Baji Rao II, the pension granted to him was abolished and the claims of his adopted son, Nana Dhondu Pant, were disregarded. In 1856, the kingdom of Oudh was annexed. The Nawabs had been the faithful allies of the Company for a long time; but such considerations did not weigh much with Dalhousie, who had a calculated plan to abolish all the Indian States.

The result of his policy was that no Indian prince felt secure, and there was widespread resentment. The annexations also caused discontent among the subjects of the dispossessed princes, as they were bound to them by old ties of tradition. For an Englishman like Dalhousie it was not possible to realize that the people had genuine respect for old dynasties and that they might prefer the old tyranny to the oppression of the new rulers.

The ever widening frontiers of the Company's dominion also resulted in the shutting out of Indians from all avenues of honourable employment. The administrative reforms of Cornwallis, introduced at the close of the 18th century, meant the virtual exclusion of Indians from high posts. The administration assumed an English character. There was perhaps no other case of foreign rule in which the people were "so completely excluded from all share of the government of the country as in British India". To make matters worse, the English administrators gradually became arrogant and there was a wide gulf between them and the people. They could hardly know the feelings of the vast multitude, which providence had placed under their rule.

This lack of understanding of the feelings of the people is nowhere better illustrated than in the agrarian changes which were introduced in the first half of the 19th century, particularly in the North-Western Province. In the settlement of this province, many landowners were deprived of their lands as they failed to establish their proprietary rights by documentary proof. Investigations were even made into the titles of those who had held estates for many generations before the advent of the Company's rule. At the same time enquiries were held in regard to rent-free tenures. Many failed to satisfy the authorities in regard to the original validity of their titles and their tenures were resumed to augment the Government's revenue. Similarly, in the Bombay Presidency the Inam Commission carried out investigations into a large number of titles to land and many estates were abolished on the failure of the Jagirdars to produce satisfactory documentary evidence in support of their claims.

The landed aristocracy was alienated by these ill-conceived measures. Further bitterness was aroused by the working of the Sale Law and excessive taxation which ruined the landlord and peasant alike. Under the old system land was inalienable, but now it could be sold in default of payment of rent. In the auctions the estates of many land owners were acquired by money-lenders, whose power was growing under the new system but who were total strangers to the rural population. As a result of this 'agrarian revolution' village communities were broken up. The landlords were not merely deprived of their estates but of all hope of honourable employment. The peasants did not benefit under the new dispensation and were equally aggrieved. Ideas of individual rights and personal freedom did not occur to them and they were opposed to changes in traditional socio-economic relations. The British administrators failed to realize that there was a traditional bond between the *talukdars* and their retainers and they all blamed the alien rulers for their impoverishment. When the revolt broke out the rural population, naturally, swelled the ranks of the rebels.

Economic distress was also caused in another way by the policies of the Government. The political authority which the Company wielded was employed to serve its commercial interests for many years. Indian handicrafts were ruined as a result of its oppressive policy and the loss of patronage caused by the dissolution of the

princely states. The adverse effects of the Industrial Revolution on the Indian economy were also being felt. These factors naturally added to the rising wave of discontent in the country.

The British were different from the Indian people in race, religion, habits, ideas and sentiments. In the 18th century they exhibited a friendly attitude towards Indian society and religions. They had no particular zeal for their own religion and the Company even acted as trustees of some Hindu temples. Missionary activity was discouraged. In the 19th century this attitude underwent a radical change and the British began to interfere with the religious and social usages of the people. Some of the social reforms were indeed introduced with lofty motives, to put an end to evil customs and to ameliorate the condition of the people; but the feelings of those whom the reforms affected were not taken into consideration. The result was that even the abolition of *Sati* (1829) was not welcomed by the mass of the people. When this evil custom had been banned more than 250 years earlier by Akbar there was no such feeling of resentment on the part of his Hindu subjects. But in the 19th century people looked on the foreign Government with suspicion and they feared that their ancestral faith and caste were in peril. Their fears were undoubtedly based on their own observations. After 1813 there was a definite increase both in the numbers and proselytising activities of the Christian missionaries, whose avowed object was to convert people to their faith. Missionaries were to be seen everywhere—in bazars, schools, hospitals and even prisons. They ridiculed in public the tenets of Hinduism and Islam. The teaching of the Bible was introduced in some Government schools, and orphans and victims of calamities were often converted to Christianity. The missionaries received support and patronage from highly placed Government officials and the people naturally believed that the Government was in collusion with them to eradicate their caste and convert them to Christianity. The passing of Act XXI of 1850, which enabled converts to inherit ancestral property, confirmed this belief; the new law was naturally interpreted as a concession to Christian converts. Another unpopular act was the one of 1856, permitting Hindu widows to remarry. This was a salutary reform, but according to the sentiments of those days the people apprehended that their religion and society were in imminent danger.

The princes lived in an atmosphere of insecurity, the landed aristocracy had been alienated and the mass of the people were disaffected; but their antagonism would not have led to a serious insurrection so long as the Sepoy Army remained loyal. The Sepoys of the Bengal Army were mostly men of high caste from Oudh and the North-Western Province; they shared the general apprehensions regarding the Government's intentions. The Sepoys had won many wars for the Company. They had fought for their masters with unflinching devotion in the most difficult and perilous circumstances. In spite of this, they did not get a fair deal. Their emoluments were very low in comparison with those of the British soldiers and their chances of promotion negligible. They also had grievances regarding the payment of extra allowances for service in newly conquered territories, like Sind, which were foreign lands to them. The Sepoy's trust in the Government was fast waning. Their bitterness against the foreign masters was intensified by the arrogant attitude of their European officers, and the fellow feeling between Sepoys and officers which had once existed in the Company's Army was a thing of the past. The loyalty of the Sepoys was further undermined by certain military reforms which outraged their religious feelings. They had an aversion to overseas service, as travel across the seas meant loss of caste for them. Their feelings had previously been respected in this matter; but in accordance with the new enlistment regulations issued in July 1856 overseas service was made obligatory on all new recruits. The Sepoys construed this as another attack on their caste and religion; their loyalty was severely shaken.

While the country was thus seething with discontent and the Sepoys, too, were agitated, the affair of the greased cartridge came up. One day in January 1857 a rumour went round at Calcutta that the new cartridges to be used in the Enfield Rifle, recently introduced in India, were greased with cow's fat and lard and that this had been done to defile both the Hindu and Mulim Sepoys who would use the cartridges. There was reason to believe that the grease used was of an offensive nature, and the news soon spread to all the military stations. This roused a storm of indignation and kindled the embers of discontent. The introduction of the cartridges hastened the revolt which had long been brewing.

The authorities soon discovered their error and attempted to allay

the feelings of the Sepoys, which had been roused by their ill-conceived measure. Orders were issued that the new cartridges should not be issued to the Indian regiments and the drill was changed so that the cartridges need not be bitten. But it was too late. Once the suspicions of the Sepoys were aroused it was not possible to soothe them. They were not satisfied even when they were told to grease their cartridges themselves.

The rising wave of discontent manifested itself in several cases of incendiarism at Barrackpur and several other military stations. On 26 February the 19th Native Infantry at Berhampur refused to accept the cartridges given to them. The authorities decided to disband the regiment as a warning to others. Then on 29 March Mangal Pande, a sepoy of the 34th Native Infantry at Barrackpur, attacked the Adjutant of his regiment. His action was a result of the fear in the Sepoy's minds regarding loss of their caste and religion. Mangal Pande was executed after a court-martial; but the trouble which had started could not be stopped by such measures. He was not a felon or a criminal in the eyes of his fellow Sepoys; he was regarded a martyr in the cause of his religion.

On 24 April Colonel Smyth of the 3rd Native Cavalry at Meerut called to parade ninety selected sowars of his regiment to demonstrate how they could load their rifles without biting the cartridges. When the cartridges were issued, eighty-five of the sowars refused to accept them. The cartridges were of old pattern, but the Sepoys could not be persuaded to handle even the material which they had used on previous occasions. The offenders were tried by court-martial and sentenced to imprisonment. On 9 May the men were stripped of their uniforms and put in fetters in the presence of the whole brigade and sent to prison. This humiliation drove their Sepoy brethren to frenzy. The following evening, the standard of rebellion was raised. The station was taken by surprise. Led by the sowars of the 3rd Cavalry, the Sepoys broke open the prison and released their comrades, shot many of their British officers and set their bungalows on fire. Chaos followed in the city and there was indiscriminate plunder and killing.

The Sepoys had risen without any plan; but they did not stay very long at Meerut. The majority of them took the road to Delhi, forty

miles away. Early next morning, after crossing the Jamuna by the bridge of boats, they appeared before the palace of the titular King of Delhi, Abu Zafar Siraj-ud-din Bahadur Shah, a worn-out man of eighty. The King, though shorn of all ruling authority, was still the legal sovereign of Hindustan, and the East India Company held sway over the country on the basis of grants made by his ancestors. There was still a lingering memory of the glorious Mughal Raj, and the last representative of the dynasty was the natural choice of the Sepoys for leadership of the revolt. They urged the old monarch to accept their leadership. He hesitated but finally agreed to their request. This gave legal sanction to the 'mutiny' and the struggle assumed a political colour. Henceforth the Sepoys were fighting in the name of their sovereign.

The city of Delhi passed into the hands of the 'rebels' in a few hours. The Meerut Sepoys were soon joined by their brethren in the cantonment and the civilian population led by the princes of the royal family. The city was denuded of all Europeans; many were killed and others escaped in disguise when darkness fell at the end of the day. On 12 May the revival of the Mughal Empire was proclaimed with the booming of guns, and the news went round that the English *Raj* had come to an end. Tidings of the disaster had, however, been flashed to the British authorities in the Punjab before the telegraph office was captured.

The loss of Delhi was a severe blow to the prestige of the Company's Government. There was a comparative respite for a fortnight, however, and the English heaved a sigh of relief. The Punjab, where trouble was expected, remained peaceful. The regiments of Purbiah Sepoys of the Bengal Army posted in different cantonments of the province were disarmed to render them harmless. Those among them who chose to revolt at Ferozepur, Peshawar, Mardan, Sialkot and Lahore, were wiped out. Preparations were set afoot by the Punjab authorities to help in the recovery of the imperial city.

But before the English made an attempt to restore their authority in Delhi rebellions broke out over a wide area covering the North-Western Province, Oudh, Central India and Western Bihar. There

were outbreaks of the Sepoys at Nasirabad and Nimach in Central India, and at Jhansi on 5 June. By the second week of June practically the whole of Oudh, was up in arms. The Sepoys had risen at Lucknow on 30 May and the British residence, led by Sir Henry Lawrence, the Chief Commissioner of Oudh, had to take refuge in the Residency. In Rohilkhand, the Sepoys rose at Bareilly on 31 May under the leadership of Subadar Bakht Khan, who later became the Commander-in-Chief of the 'rebel' forces at Delhi. Banaras witnessed a sporadic rising on 4 June and the next day a rising started at Kanpur. Allahabad followed on 6 June.

Apart from Delhi, the main centres of the rebellion were Kanpur, Lucknow and Jhansi. At Kanpur the leadership of the rebels was assumed by Nana Dhondu Pant, popularly called Nana Saheb, the adopted son of the ex-Peshwa, Baji Rao II. He established his government there. He was assisted by his friend and adviser Azimullah Khan, Tatya Tope, Jwala Prasad and Tika Singh. In Oudh, Begam Hazrat Mahal, the wife of the ex-King of Oudh, led the revolt. Her minor son, Birjis Qadr, was proclaimed *Wali-i-Oudh*. The most outstanding leader of the revolt in Oudh was, however, Ahmad-ullah Shah, the Maulvi of Faizabad. At Bareilly, Khan Bahadur Khan, a descendant of Hafiz Rahmat Khan, proclaimed himself Viceroy on behalf of the Mughal Emperor. In Allahabad, Maulvi Liakat Ali, a man of humble origin, took over the administration. Rani Lakshmi Bai, the young widow of Raja Gangadhar Rao, began to rule at Jhansi. All these chiefs, however, professed allegiance to the Mughal Emperor who was the symbolic head of the struggle.

The rebellion spread very fast and its suppression proved to be a difficult problem. With the arrival of reinforcements, the task was taken up by the British authorities with determination. Neill was dispatched from Calcutta with a strong force to relieve Kanpur and Lucknow. He arrived at Banaras on 3 June 1857, and after ruthlessly suppressing an outbreak, caused by his own aggressive policy, he left for Allahabad. He reached the latter place on 11 June and within a week the city was secure in the hands of the British force. The Maulvi had to leave the city. In the meantime, General Sir Henry Havelock had been dispatched with fresh reinforcements to restore British authority at Kanpur and Lucknow. He came by rapid marches and

encountered Nana's forces at Fatehpur on 12 July. Havelock's advance on Kanpur was fiercely contested by the Indian troops, but superior equipment and better leadership helped him to enter the city on 17 July at the head of a victorious army. Nana Saheb evacuated Bithur on 18 July and escaped to Oudh. Havelock soon started preparations for the relief of Lucknow, and on 25 July he crossed the Ganga and entered Oudh territory.

The recovery of Delhi was of supreme importance to the British. On 8 June a combined force from the Punjab and Meerut defeated the rebels at Badli-ki-Serai, near Delhi, and occupied the Ridge the same day. The British force had to wait there for more than three months for reinforcements and heavy artillery to enable them to make a successful assault on the city. During this period they maintained their position on the Ridge with great difficulty in the face of incessant fire from the troops within the city walls and repeated attacks on their positions. More than twenty actions were fought here during June and July.

The British force was strengthened in August with the arrival of John Nicholson. On 3 September the siege-train arrived, and on 14 September the British delivered their assault. The fiercest battle of the campaign was fought on that day and there were heavy casualties on both sides; but by nightfall the British troops had entered the city after blowing up the Kashmir Gate. The fury of battle raged for another six days; the defenders fought courageously but could not prevent the occupation of the city. The palace was taken on 20 September. The following day Bahadur Shah surrendered to Captain Hodson in the shadow of the tomb of his great ancestor, Emperor Humayun. At the same place three of the princes were captured on 22 September and mercilessly shot by Hodson outside Delhi Gate. The city was sacked and thousands of innocent people perished.

Meanwhile, Henry Havelock had crossed the Ganga from Kanpur with the object of relieving the besieged troops in the Residency at Lucknow. But his task was a very difficult one. The people of Oudh opposed his advance every inch of the way to Lucknow and twice he had to retreat. It was not till 25 September that he was able to reach the Residency, but he could do no more than add to the garrison. The siege of Lucknow continued, and the rebel forces were augmented by

the arrival of numerous retainers of the Oudh *talukdars* who had joined the struggle.

Meanwhile, Sir Colin Campbell had assumed the office of Commander-in-Chief and with a strong contingent arrived at Kanpur on 3 November. He was joined by the troops from Delhi, and after very hard fighting succeeded in reaching the Lucknow Residency on 17 November. He felt, however, that his force was inadequate to hold the city, so he returned to Kanpur with the sick and wounded and the women and children.

On his return to Kanpur on 28 November, Sir Colin found that the town had been occupied by Tatya Tope, who had defeated General Windham on 27 November and obliged him to take shelter in the entrenchment. Tatya had assumed command of the rebel Gwalior contingent at Kalpi (45 miles from Kanpur) and taking advantage of the absence of the British Commander-in-Chief, advanced on Kanpur and joined the troops of Nana Saheb there. Tatya could not hold the city for long; the 'rebel' forces were routed on 6 December. Tatya and many of his troops were, however, able to return to Kalpi.

In March 1858 Sir Colin returned to Lucknow. The city was regained after three weeks of hard fighting. Begam Hazrat Mahal and other leaders of the revolt were able to make their escape with numerous followers. The fighting in Oudh continued till the end of the year, as many *talukdars* refused to surrender on the terms offered to them. The rebels were finally driven to the Nepal frontier, to die there in the inhospitable climate or to be captured as prisoners by the Gurkhas who had come to succour the British at a very critical stage of their campaign.

In Rohilkhand, Khan Bahadur Khan's rule came to an end within two months of the capture of Lucknow. Bareilly was occupied by the British force on 5 May. Bahadur Khan escaped, but was later captured on the Nepal frontier, brought to Bareilly, tried and hanged. The Maulvi of Faizabad had entered Rohilkhand after his defeat at Lucknow. He continued to fight undaunted for some time. On 5 June 1858, he attacked Powain and was shot dead by the garrison in the fortress. His head was severed and exposed at the Kotwali of Shahjahanpur, a town which he had attacked a few days earlier. His

body was burnt and the ashes thrown into the Ramganga, the worst punishment his enemy could possibly inflict after his death.

In Bihar, the most formidable challenge to British authority came from Babu Kunwar Singh, an old Rajput chieftain of Jagdishpur, in Shahabad district. He assumed command of the Sepoys who had revolted at Danapur on 25 July. Two days later he occupied Arrah, the headquarter of the district. Major Vincent Eyre relieved the town on 3 August, defeated Kunwar Singh's force and destroyed Jagdishpur. Kunwar Singh left his ancestral village, and after passing through Rewa, Banda, Kalpi and Kanpur, he reached Lucknow in December 1857. In March 1858 he occupied Azamgarh, for which he had been granted a *farman* by the *Wali* of Oudh. He had to leave the place soon; pursued by Brigadier Douglas, he hastily retreated towards his home in Bihar. On 23 April Kunwar Singh won a signal victory near Jagdishpur over the force led by Captain Le Grand, but the following day he died in his village.

The mantle of the old chief now fell on his brother Amar Singh who, in spite of heavy odds, continued the struggle and for a considerable time ran a parallel government in the district of Shahabad. In October 1859 Amar Singh joined the rebel leaders in the Nepal Terai.

After his defeat at Kanpur in December 1857, Tatya Tope carried on a desperate struggle in Central India. Meanwhile Sir Hugh Rose had taken over command of the Central India Field Force. Starting from his base at Mhow he relieved Sagar in February and on 22 March laid siege to Jhansi, where the indomitable Rani held the reins of government. Tatya Tope came to the assistance of the Rani, but he was defeated in the battle of the Betwa. Jhansi fell on 4 April after a heroic resistance, in which even women and children took part. Lakshmi Bai fled to Kalpi to join Tatya Tope and Rao Saheb. The 'rebels' now suffered a series of defeats and Kalpi was evacuated on 23 May.

Surrounded by British forces on all sides, they were now in sore straits. However, they had courage enough for an act of great daring. Marching to Gwalior, they captured the city and fortress practically without striking a blow on 1 June. The Maharaja remained loyal to

the British and fled to Agra, but his army joined the rebels, Rao Saheb proclaimed the Peshwa's rule at Gwalior.

Sir Hugh Rose immediately marched to Gwalior and arrived there on 16 June. Three days later the British force occupied the fortress. The Rani of Jhansi fell in a battle on 17 June but Tatya Tope and Rao Saheb were able to escape. Tatya now resorted to guerilla warfare, and baffled the British commanders for many months. He was finally betrayed early in April 1859 by a friend named Man Singh. After a hurried trial, he was hanged at Sipri on 18 April. By that time the revolt had been suppressed.

The Indian struggle of 1857 was marked by merciless savagery and many innocent men, women and children were slaughtered on both sides. From the beginning, when the British heard of the excesses committed at Meerut and Delhi, they were seized with the desire for vengeance. Wherever the British forces advanced cities were sacked, villages burnt and people slaughtered irrespective of their guilt. Such inhuman behaviour was ascribed to the indignation which the news of the murder of British women and children had aroused. It may, however, be noted that the two massacres—at Kanpur—came after the inhuman acts of Neill at Banaras and Allahabad. The massacres at Sati Chaura Ghat and Bibighar were to a large extent the direct result of the provocation offered by the slaughter of innocent people by Neill. It would be appropriate to quote in this connection the words of Michael Edwardes. He writes: "From the first murder of European civilians at Meerut and Delhi, the English threw aside the mask of civilization and engaged in a war of such ferocity that reasonable parallel can be seen in our own times with the Nazi occupation of Europe and, in the past, with the hell of the Thirty Years' War. No quarter was given to suspected mutineers. Justice became a dirty word, and reason and humanity, feminine frippery."

All Englishmen were not in favour of such cruel treatment of Indians and many raised their voices of protest. Lord Canning, the Governor-General, genuinely attempted to put an end to this madness and ordered the proper trial and punishment of those who were suspected of being guilty. For this his countrymen nick-named him in derision, 'Clemency Canning.'

The Revolt had run its course by the middle of 1858, though some fighting

continued in the following year. It started as a military rising, but immediately it turned into a war of independence. When the Sepoys placed themselves under the leadership of Bahadur Shah and proclaimed him Emperor of Hindustan, they began to fight for a political cause. Their struggle was then for their king and country. The Sepoys undoubtedly took up arms against their British masters for the defence of their religion, but they were also fighting for political independence as their religion was threatened by the alien government and they wanted to replace it by a political system indigenous to the soil.

The movement spread outside the Army and assumed the shape of a popular struggle against British rule. In many places in the North-Western Province, Oudh and Bihar, the civil population rose independently of the Sepoys. In places where the rising was confined to the Army alone its effects were temporary, but where the civil population joined, the resistance continued for a long time.

In assessing the character of the revolt it would be improper to judge it in the context of the modern concept of nationalism. To assume the existence of such a conception of nationality in 1857 would not be correct,

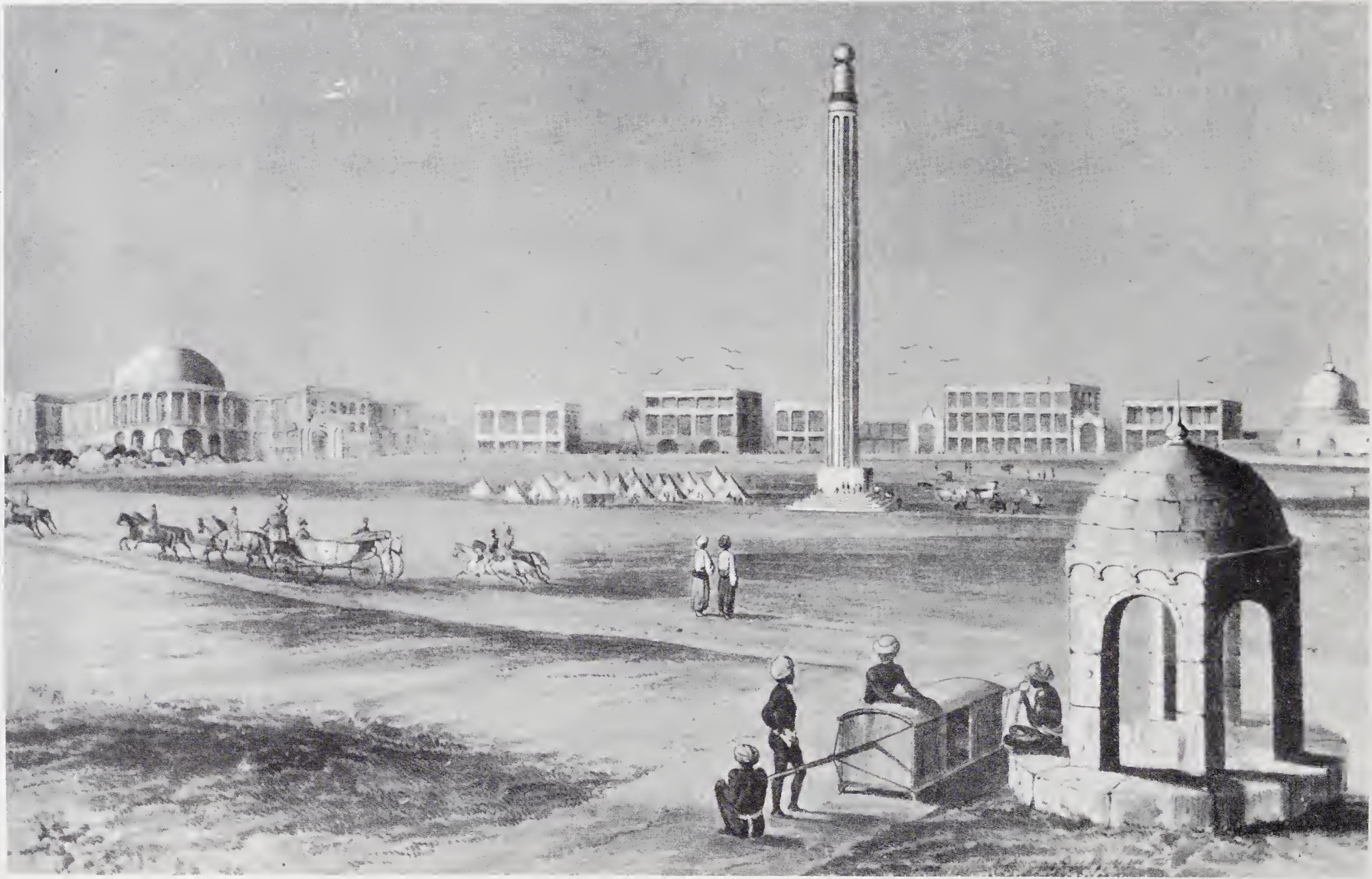
as the country was then passing through a semi-feudal stage. It would also be unfair to judge mid-nineteenth century men by the standards of today. Those who actively joined the revolt had diverse motives, but they were all united in their hatred of the British rule and in their aim to overthrow it. The struggle was as nearly 'national' as it possibly could be under the conditions then prevailing. It was spontaneous and was inspired by a popular impulse to break the shackles of slavery. It brought about the union of different elements and it had wide popular support from almost all classes of society. The struggle created an amazing sense of unity between Hindus and Muslims, and they fought together as brethren. The English attempted to exploit religious differences in order to create dissension in their ranks, particularly in Delhi and Bareilly, but they did not succeed.

The revolt failed in its object. That was perhaps inevitable under the circumstances. But even in its failure the struggle of 1857 forms a significant chapter in the history of India. It was the first large-scale popular uprising against British rule and the first expression of India's urge for freedom. It was undoubtedly the same urge which realised itself ninety years later. The unknown heroes of 1857 did not shed their blood in vain.



The Palace at Delhi, from the riverside

This was the home of the titular King of Delhi, a lineal descendant of the Great Mughals. Ever since their advent in Delhi, in 1803, the British had gradually usurped all his ruling powers; but in 1857 he was still the legal sovereign and the East India Company governed in his name. The Palace naturally became the rallying point of the rebels from all parts of the country.



Calcutta from Chowringhee, 1857

The city was the seat of East India Company's Government in India. In this sketch the principal building at the north end of the Maidan is the Government House. It is flanked by the Town Hall and other public buildings.

The Sepoys at Rifle Practice

The Enfield Rifle was introduced in India towards the close of 1856. Early in 1857 the Government had opened Musketry Depots at principal military stations for training in the use of the new weapon. The sketch represents some Sepoys at training. They had by then heard of the objectionable nature of the grease used in the new cartridges.





Barrackpur

The first violent outbreak connected with the rising of 1857 took place at Barrackpur near Calcutta. The greased cartridges had excited misapprehensions in the minds of the Sepoys and they regarded their introduction as an open attack on their religion. On 29 March 1857 Mangal Pande, a sepoy of the 34th Bengal Native Infantry, stationed at Barrackpur attacked European officers. He was overcome, court martialled and hanged. Ishwari Pande, Jamadar of the Guard on duty, who had not apprehended Mangal Pande, was also hanged. The Sepoys were suspected of treason and many regiments of the Bengal Army were disarmed and disbanded.

Opposite page

Disarming of Sepoys at Barrackpur →





Disarming of the 11th Irregular Cavalry

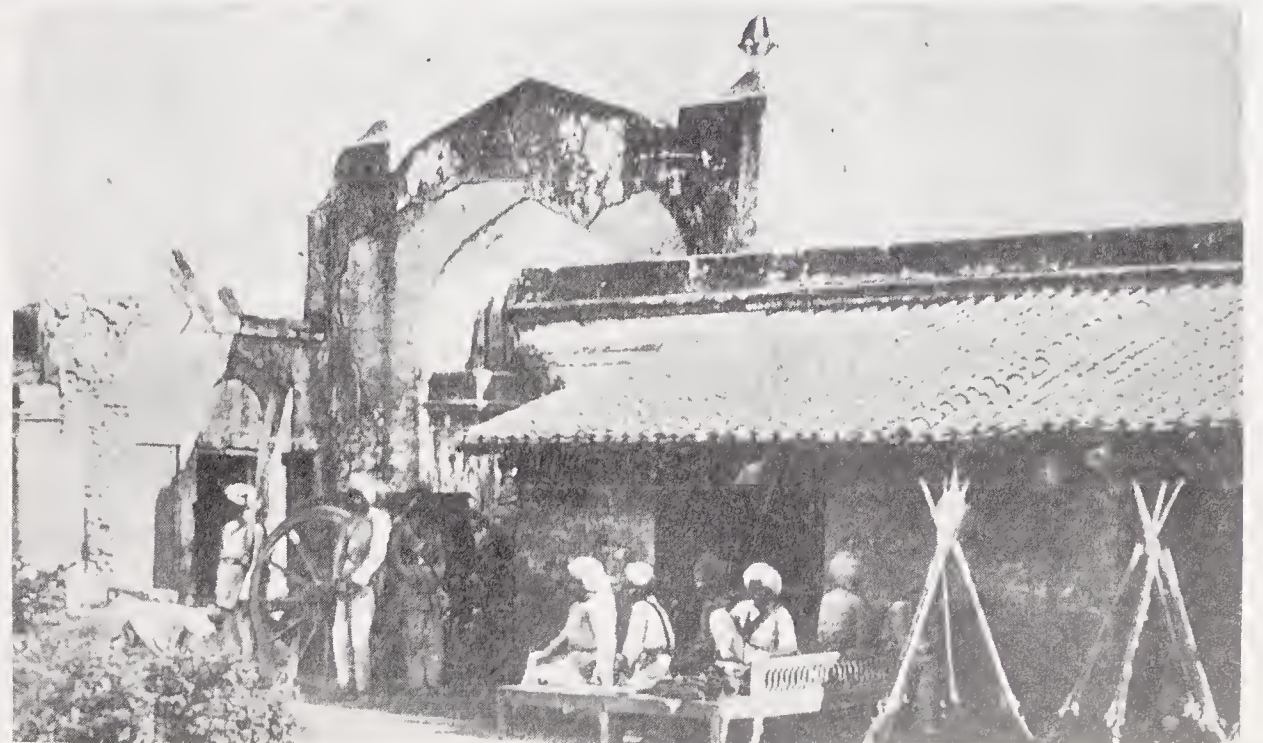
The Regiment was disarmed at Berhampur by Colonel Campbell on 1 August 1857 in the presence of Her Majesty's 90th Regiment of Light Infantry.



The Revolt at Meerut

The sketch represents the open revolt of the Sepoys at Meerut on 10 May 1857. On 24 April eighty-five sowars of the 3rd Cavalry had refused to accept the cartridges given to them. They were sentenced to imprisonment after a trial by court-martial, put in fetters and humiliated in the presence of the whole Brigade on 9 May. Next day the revolt broke out suddenly in the evening. The Sepoys broke open the prison and released their comrades. A great majority of them took the road to Delhi.

Some Sepoys after the outbreak of the rebellion





The City of Delhi before the Siege, 1857

1. The Jamuna 2. Offshoot of the Jamuna 3. Pontoon Bridge 4. Salimgarh 5. Palace and gardens 6. Throne Room 7. Chandni Chauk 8. Canal street 9. The Bank 10. Jama Masjid 11. Sadullah Khan 12. Fatehpur Masjid 13. Nigambodh Gate 14. Kashmir Gate 15. Mori Gate 16. Kabul Gate and Water Gate 17. The Canal 18. Lahore Gate 19. Delhi College 20. Ajmeri Gate 21. Turkman Gate 22. Delhi Gate 23. Jail 24. Lunatic Asylum 25. English Church 26. Magazine and Store House 27. Skinner's House 28. Customs House 29. Martello Towers 30. Qutab Minar 31. Ruins of Old Delhi.

On the left is shown the bridge of boats over which the Meerut Sepoys crossed the Jamuna on the morning of 11 May 1857 and entered Delhi.

View of Delhi from the Palace Gate





Zinat Mahal, queen of Bahadur Shah

She played a leading role in the affairs of state in 1857

Bahadur Shah II, the last King of Delhi

He was born in 1775 and succeeded to the title in 1837. Bahadur Shah was virtually a pensioner of the East India Company and his authority was limited to his palace. On 11 May he accepted the leadership of the rebels and was proclaimed Emperor of Hindustan.





Palace of the King of Delhi



Lahore Gate of the Red Fort

One of the two main gates which led into the Palace

Salimgarh

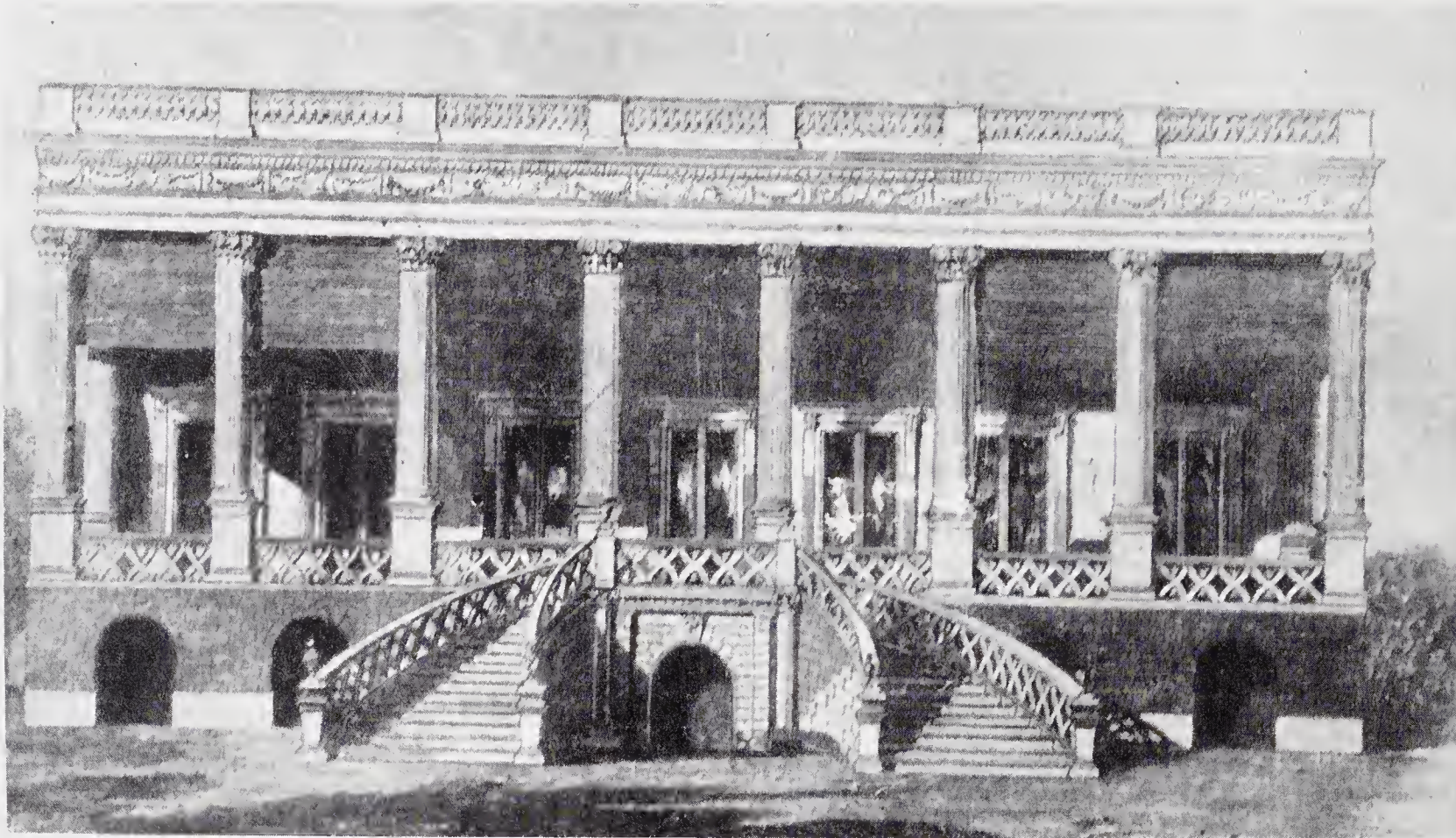
This old fort on the river front at Delhi was the scene of fierce fighting in 1857. It was occupied by the British forces on 20 September. The sketch shows the fort and the bridge connecting Salimgarh with the Red Fort.





Chandni Chauk

The principal street of Delhi as seen before 1857.



The Bank, Delhi

It was attacked and captured by the Sepoys on 11 May 1857. The picture shows the building before the rebellion.

Gate of the Magazine at Delhi

The Magazine was attacked by the Sepoys on the first day of the revolt in Delhi. The position was captured at the cost of many Indian lives as its English defenders blew it up.





An Indian Battery

The sketch represents the interior of one of the batteries in which are a party of Sepoys in their usual Indian dress. The soldier reposing on his cot is a Subadar as is also the one on the horse.



The British Camp at Delhi from the left rear

On 8 June 1857 the British force under the command of Sir Henry Barnard captured the Ridge after a successful action at Badli-ki-Serai earlier in the day. The British camp was pitched before Delhi as shown in this sketch and remained so with slight alternations until the assault on 14 September.

Hindu Rao's House

This post situated at the right extremity of the Ridge was occupied by the British on 8 June 1857. During the siege Hindu Rao's House was frequently attacked by the Indian forces as it was the British picket nearest of the city walls.



Flagstaff Tower

Here was located the left picket of the Ridge. This place was also occupied by the British force on 8 June 1857.



Storming of Indian Batteries at Badli-ki-Serai

The advance of the British force towards Delhi was courageously opposed by the Sepoys on 8 June 1857 at Badli-ki-Serai. Heavy losses were incurred by the British force in this action; among the killed was Colonel Chester, Adjutant General of the Army.



Advance of the Siege-Train

The fortifications of Delhi proved to be too strong for the heavy guns which originally came with the Delhi Field Force. Therefore, a siege-train consisting of nearly fifty pieces of heavy ordnance was brought to Delhi. It was accompanied by innumerable carts, loaded with ammunition, and extended over seven miles. The siege-train arrived in Delhi on 3 September 1857.





Assault of Delhi

On 14 September 1857 the British force delivered their assault on Delhi for which preparations had been made by them for nearly three months. The sketch represents the fierce fighting of that day. The Indian troops fought with courage and did not yield an inch without desperate struggle. They, however, failed to keep the foreigners out of the imperial city. The English victory was secured at the cost of very heavy losses.

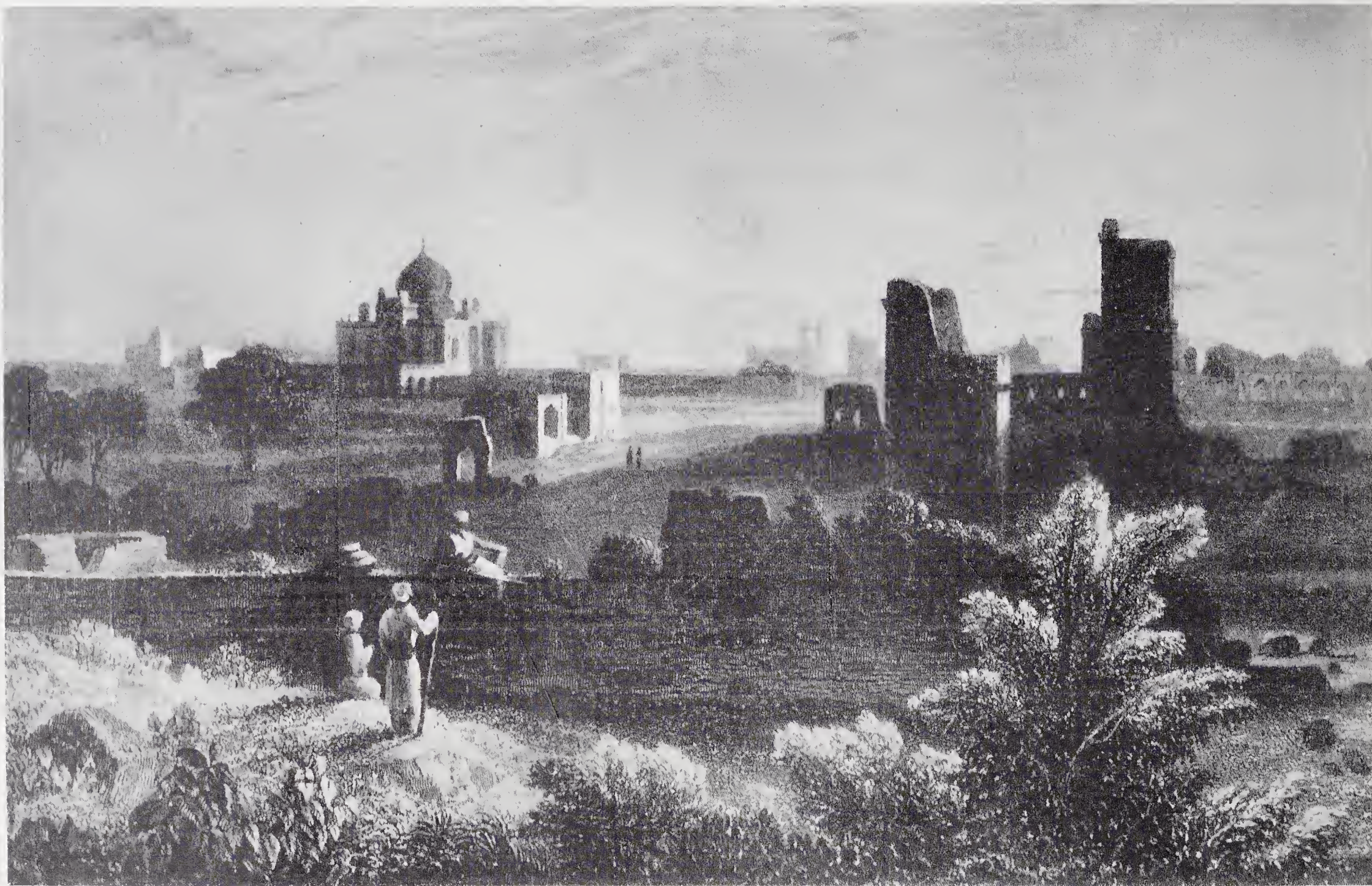
Storming of Delhi

Another sketch of the fighting on
14 September 1857.



Kashmir Gate, Delhi

The photograph shows the battered condition of the Kashmir Gate which was the scene of the fiercest fighting on 14 September. The gate was blown up by the men of the assaulting column led by Colonel Campbell.



Humayun's Tomb, Delhi

When the city of Delhi was captured by the British force Bahadur Shah took shelter in the tomb of Humayun accompanied by Begam Zinat Mahal and the royal princes. The King of Delhi, now completely broken in spirit, surrendered to Captain Hodson on 21 September 1857.



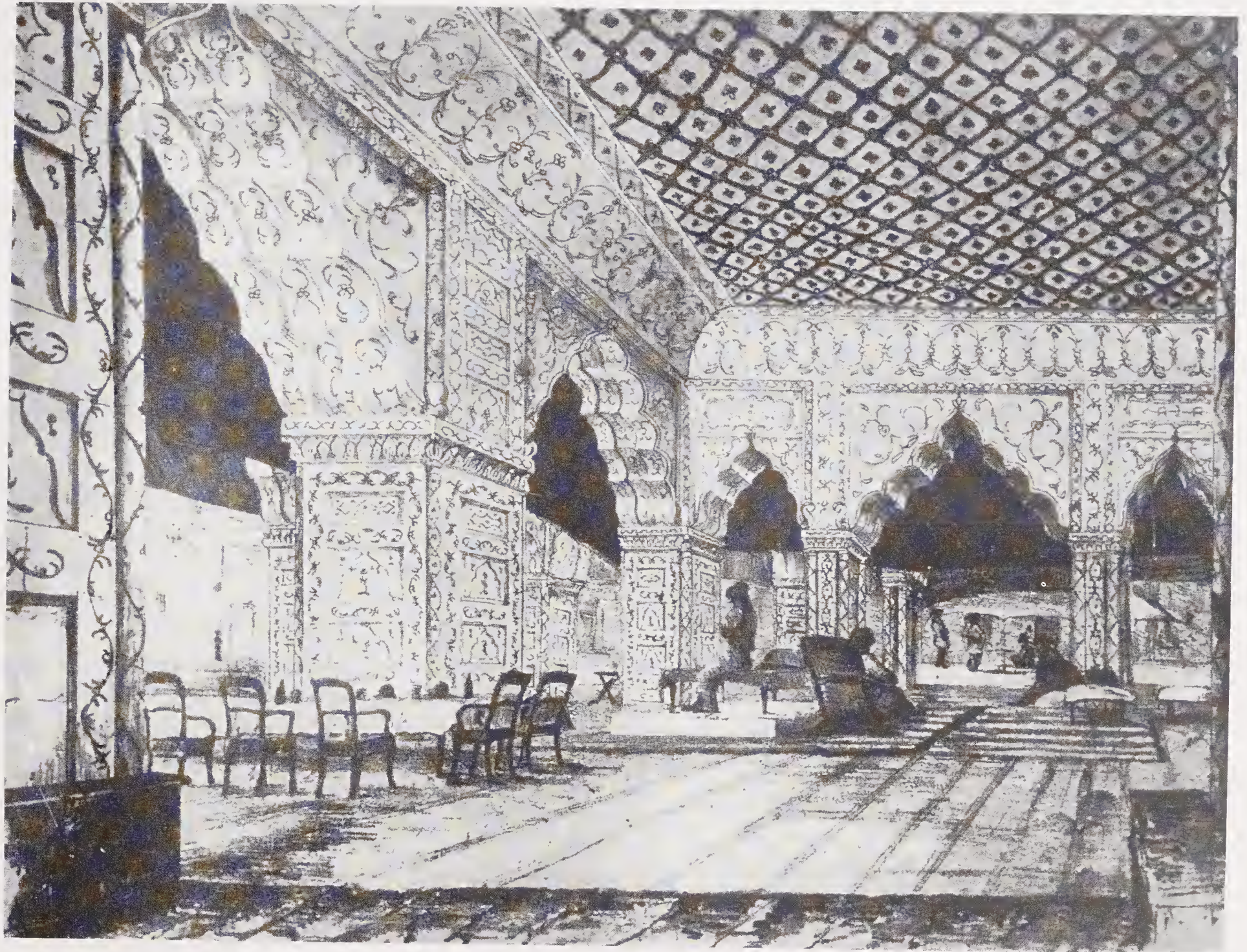
Surrender of Bahadur Shah

He gave himself up on the condition that his life and those of Begam Zinat Mahal and Prince Jawan Bakht would be spared. The ex-King was exiled to Burma and died in Rangoon on 7 November 1862.

Capture and Death of the Shahzadas of Delhi

On 22 September 1857 Captain Hodson secured at Humayun's tomb the unconditional surrender of the three princes, Mirza Mughal, Mirza Khizr Sultan and Mirza Abu Bakr. They were placed in a bullock cart and brought to the city. When the party came near Delhi Gate Hodson shot the princes with his own hand. This cruel act was the prelude to the indiscriminate killings in Delhi by the British troops.





The British in the Red Fort

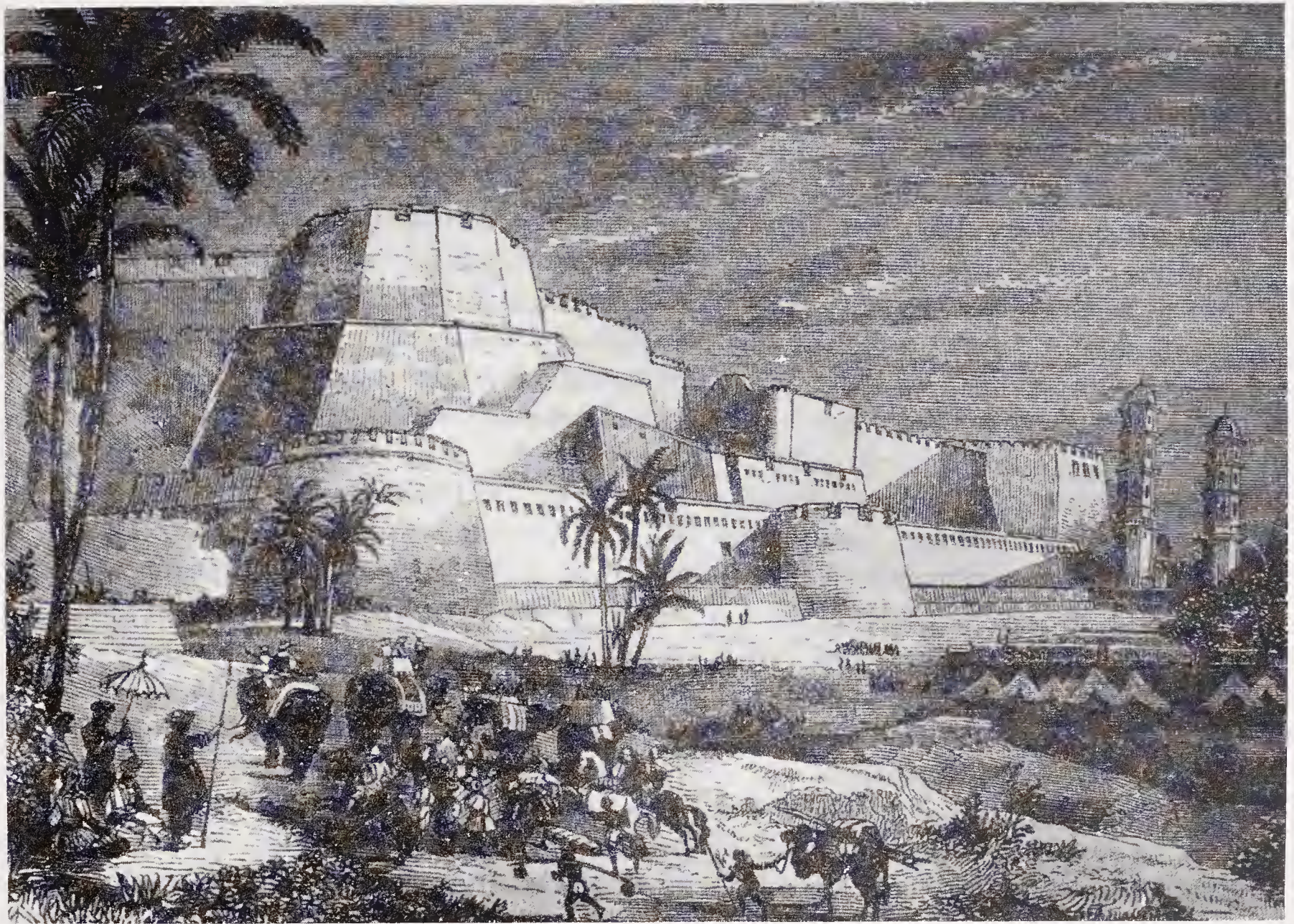
The Palace was occupied by the English on 20 September 1857 and the headquarters of the Delhi Field Force was immediately established there. The sketch represents the Dewani-i-Khas after the English had moved into the Palace.



Opposite page

Prize Agents Extracting Treasure

Prize Agents were appointed with the occupation of Delhi by the British forces and they forcibly extorted money from the citizens to augment their funds. The sketch depicts an incident that occurred.



Fort of Peshawar

The repercussions of the revolt at Meerut and Delhi were soon felt at Peshawar, on the North-West Frontier of India. The regiments of Purbiah Sepoys stationed there were suspected of disloyalty and four of them were disarmed on 22 May 1857. At Mardan, the men of the 55th Native Infantry revolted and fled towards Swat. They were pursued by John Nicholson and forty of the Sepoys, out of those who were captured were blown from guns on 11 June at the parade ground of Peshawar. On 28 August the disarmed 51st Native Infantry revolted. Of the 870 men of this Regiment only about 70 survived. Those who were captured were tried by a court-martial and executed at Peshawar.

Execution of rebel
Sepoys at Peshawar



Blowing from guns at
Peshawar



Opposite page

Blowing of rebel Sepoys from guns at Ferozepur

The 45th Regiment of the Bengal Native Infantry broke into open rebellion at Ferozepur on 18 May 1857. The Sepoys who were captured were sentenced to death by a court-martial. The executions were carried out on 13 June and ten of the prisoners were blown from guns.

The Sepoys, according to eye-witness accounts, did not show any signs of fear when facing death.



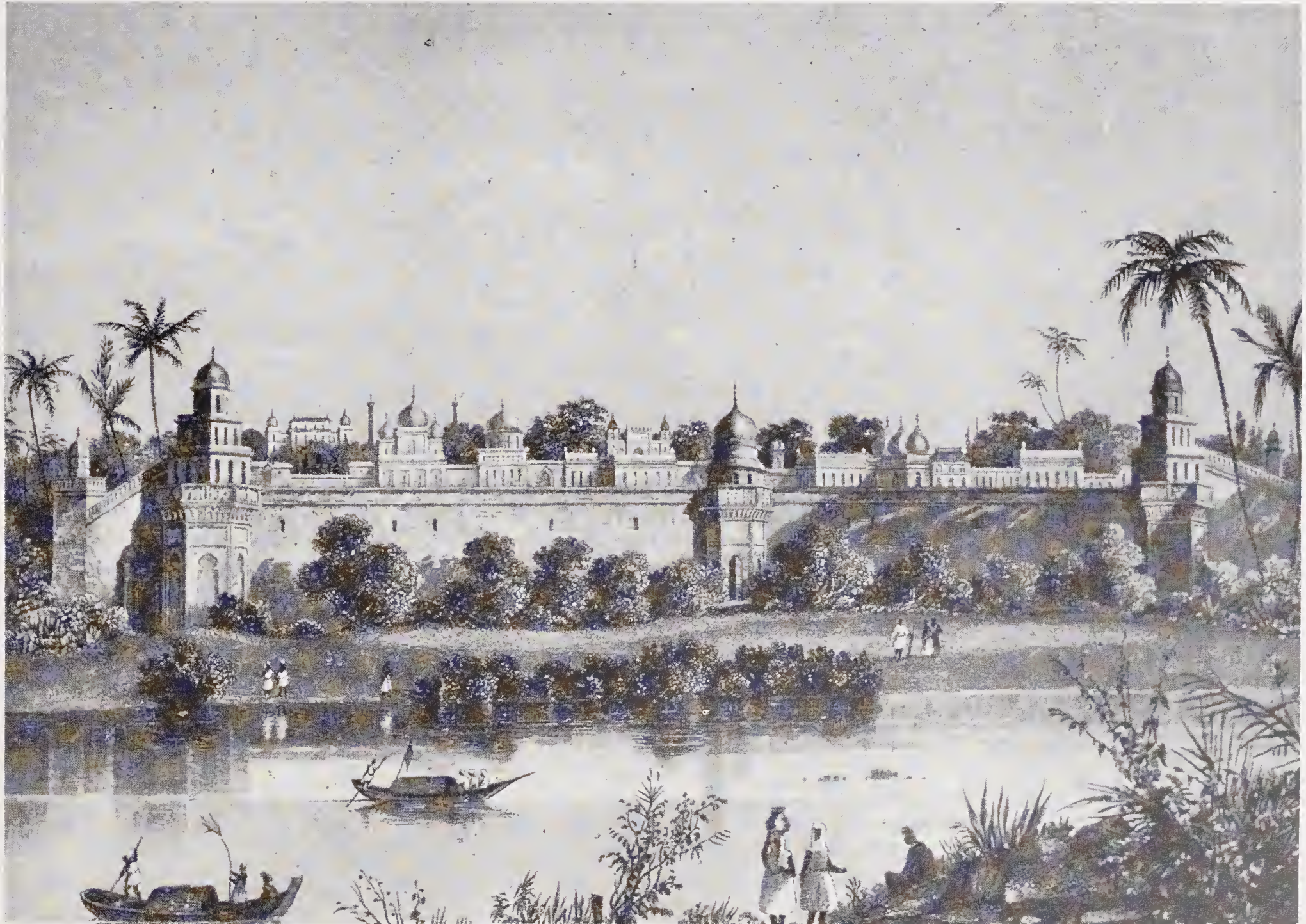


Attack on Sialkot Sepoys by Nicholson's Irregular Cavalry

The Sepoys at Sialkot rose in revolt on 9 July 1857 and set off for Delhi. They were intercepted by Nicholson's Irregular Cavalry near Trimmu Ghat on the Ravi, ten miles from Gurdaspur. After some fierce fighting the Sialkot Brigade was completely destroyed .

The Fort at Agra from the river

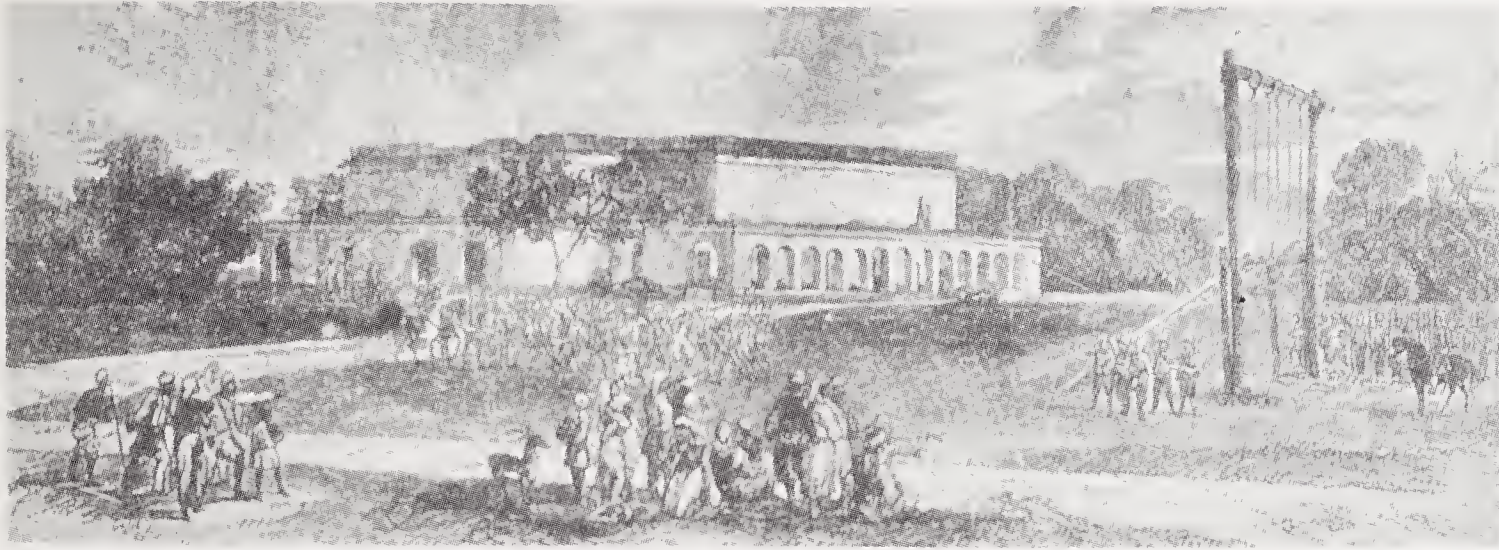
When the revolt broke out the European and Christian population of Agra took shelter in the Mughal Fort. The city was relieved by Colonel Greathed after the fall of Delhi





View of the Fort of Allahabad

The Sepoys of the 6th Native Infantry posted at Allahabad broke into open rebellion on 6 June 1857, but the garrison in the fort remained loyal. The leadership of the rebels was assumed by Maulvi Liakat Ali, a man of humble origin but of great ability. Colonel Neill reached Allahabad on 11 June and by the 17th the city was reoccupied by the English.



Court House and Gallows at Allahabad

The rebels had to pay heavily for their crime and many of them were executed.



Khusrau Bagh, Allahabad

Maulvi Liakat Ali had established his headquarters here when he assumed the government of the city.

اشتہار

ایک مسافر اور حال شہر کانپور جو کہ کلکتہ سے آیا تھا سنا گیا کہ کار تو سون کی مٹی سی پہلی واسطی یعنی دین اور مذہب بند تھانہ
 کو نسل موٹی صاحبان کو نسل کی پیدا رہی تھی کہ چونکہ یہ قد دین کا ہی اسمین سات آٹھ ہزار گورہ و اگر نیک کام آویگا اور یہاں
 ہزار ہندوستانی قتل ہو کا تب کل ہندوستانی کرشناں ہو جاوے گا چھ صدیوں کی عوضی ملکہ و کٹورہ کی خدمت میں بھیجی گئی تھی
 منسلوئی آئی پھر دوبارہ کو نسل ہوئی اور انگریزی سوداگری شریک کو نسل کی گئی تھی یہ تجویز ہوا کہ واسطی و کی سپاہ گورہ
 مرحمت ہو کہ جب قدر فوج ہندوستانی تھی کہ مبادا بروقت فتنہ بلند ہوئے کی بار خجاندین جب یہ عوضی لایست میں پڑی گئی
 وہاں سے صحت نیرا گورہ بہت جلدی جہازوں پر سوار ہو کر وہاں ہندوستان ہوئی اور اونگی و انگلی کی خبر کلکتہ میں آئی
 صاحبان کلکتہ نے واسطی ہاشی کار تو سون کی حکم جاری کیا کہ اصل مطلب اس سے کرشناں کرنا فوج ہندوستانی کا تھا کہ
 سب فوج کرشناں ہو جاوے گی تب کیا بار کی کرشناں کرنی میں دیر نہوگی اور کار تو سون ہر سو راجہ گای کی چربی ملی ہوئی تھی
 یہ حال ہائی جنگالیوں کی جو کار تو س بنائی پر تعین تھی معلوم ہوا کہ غیبت اسات کی ظاہر کرنا ہوا ان سے ایک شخص جان سی
 مار ڈالا گیا اور باقی سب قید ہوئے یہاں یہ اپنی تبرین کرتی تھی وہاں یہ خبیث کیل سلطان و مہنی لندن سے اپنی واسطی
 پاس بھیج کر یہاں سے ہزار گورہ واسطی کرشناں کرنی بند تھانہ کی روانہ ہندوستان کی ہوئی سلطان و مہنہ اندہ ملکہ نے
 یا د شامی مصر کی نام فرمان بھی کیا خلاصہ اسکا یہ ہے کہ قوم کٹورہ سے پاس کشتی جو دینہ وقت صلح کا مہینہ کیونکہ ہماری وکیل
 کی لکھی سی معلوم ہوا کہ ہشت ہزار فوج گورہ واسطی کرشناں کرنی بجایا اور فوج ہندوستانی روانہ ہندوستان کو موٹی پس مسورت
 ایسی ہو گا کہ اگر ملکہ سے اگر ہفت کرشناں تو خدا کو کیا منہ دیکھا دیکھی او پہ دن ایک روز ہماری ہی اکی آمینو لابی کیونکہ اگر انگریز
 ہندوستانیوں کو کرشناں کر لیں تو ہماری ملکہ کی فتنہ کرنا کی جب یہ فرمان سلطان و مہنہ مصر کی یا د شامی پاس ہو خجاندی مصر
 قبل ہو چکی فوج گورہ کی انتظام و اجتماع اپنی فوج شہر سکندر میں کیا کیونکہ وہی وہ آمد ہندوستان کی ہی ہو چکی فوج گورہ
 کی فوج پاشا مصر نے چاروں طرف سے تو میں ہارنا شروع کیں اور جہاز و کھوڑا کر ڈوب دیا کہ ایک گورہ ہی اون میں سے
 باقی ہزار انگریز ان کلکتہ بعد جاری کرنی حکم کا تھی کار تو س کی اور بلند ہوئی اس فتنہ و فساد کی منتظر مد فوج لندن کی
 تھی کہ حق تعالیٰ نے اپنی قدرت کاملہ سے وہیں پہلی ہی اونکا کام تمام کیا جب خبر قتل ہوئی فوج لندن کی معلوم ہوئی تب
 گورہ زجر لائی بہت رنج و غم کیا اور اپنا سر پیشا سر شرب سر قتل و تاراج دشت و سحر کہ نہ تن سرنہ سرتاج و شہ
 ایک گردش جین خیلو فری و نہ نادر و بجا ماند و نی نادر سی و حسب الجگم پیشو ابھار و طبع شدہ و از قید و تہا





Opposite page

Nana Dhondu Pant

Nana Saheb of Bithur became the leader of the rebellion at Kanpur and proclaimed himself Peshwa. He was the rebel leader most hated by the British.

Nana Saheb's Ishtihar

Nana Saheb's proclamation tells the story of the greased cartridges and reflects the fears on the part of the people that the Government intended to convert them to Christianity.

Nana Saheb with his escort leaving Lucknow



Jwala Prasad

He was the commandant of Nana Saheb's troops at Bithur and was raised to the rank of Brigadier when Nana's government was established at Kanpur. Jwala Prasad was captured in 1859 and was hanged at Kanpur on 3 May 1860.



Azim-ullah Khan

He was Nana Saheb's principal adviser and is believed to have taken a leading part in organizing the struggle of 1857. He died at Bhutwal, in Nepal, in October 1859.

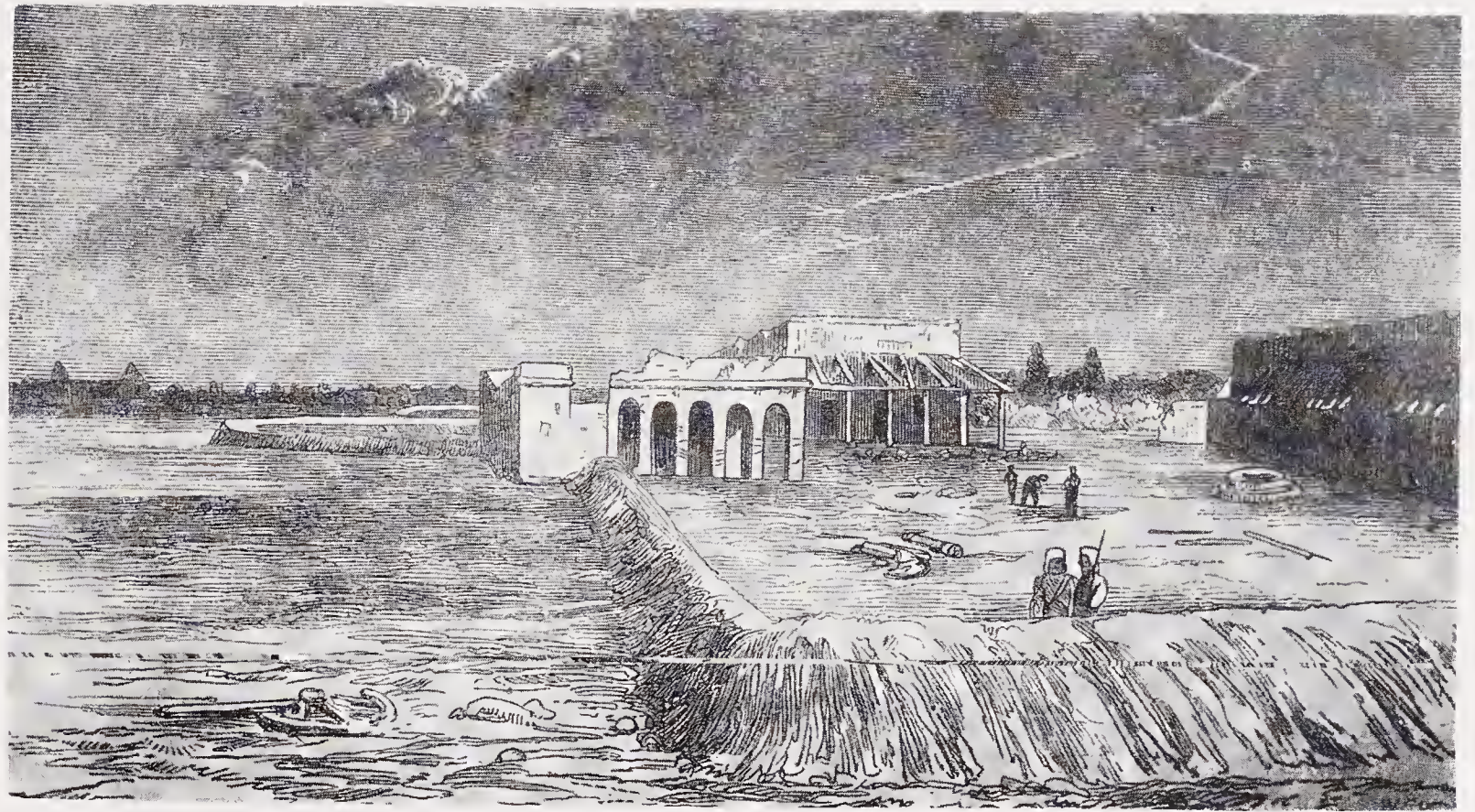


Tika Singh

He was a Subadar of the 2nd Bengal Native Infantry and was promoted to the rank of General by Nana Saheb.

The Entrenchment at Kanpur

The sketch represents the entrenchment which was chosen by Sir Hugh Wheeler as a place for defence for the English at Kanpur. The rebellion broke out there on 4 June 1857 and the attack on the entrenchment began on 6 June. The English held out until 26 June when they capitulated on condition of safe passage for Allahabad.



The Entrenchment after the fall of Kanpur

The photograph, taken after the British reoccupation of the city, shows the battered condition of the building in the entrenchment.



Sati Chaura Ghat, Kanpur

This place is associated with the massacre of Europeans on 27 June 1857 when they had come to the Ghat to take boats for Allahabad. The massacre followed Neill's killings at Banaras and Allahabad.

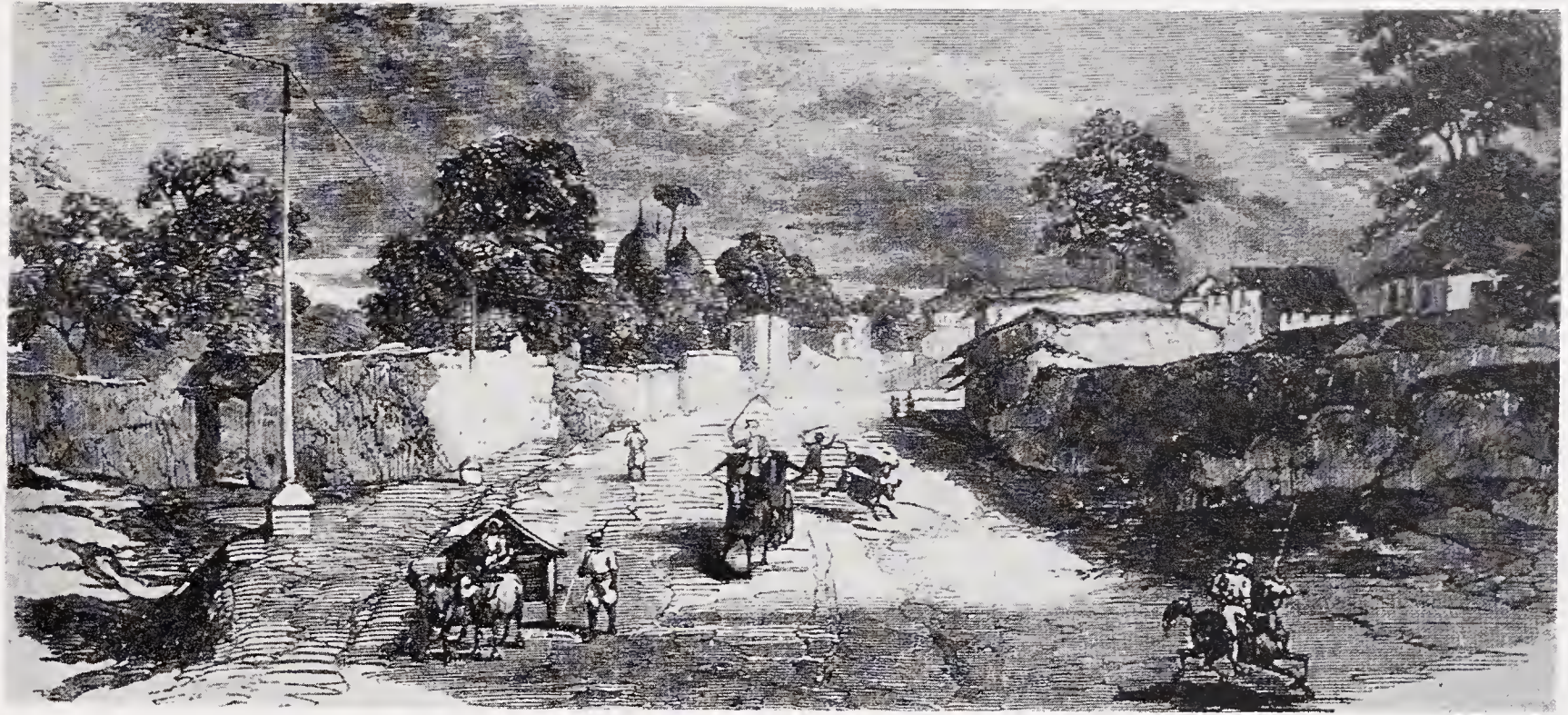
Indian Cavalry attacking a British Infantry square in the battle of Kanpur

The incident depicted here occurred on 15 July 1857 when the British force was advancing on Kanpur.



Fatehpur

The town of Fatehpur, situated 48 miles east of Kanpur on the G.T. Road, was the scene of a serious encounter, on 12 July 1857, between Nana Saheb's troops and the British force under the command of Henry Havelock. The revolt had earlier broken out there on 9 June.



General Havelock's attack on Nana Saheb at Fatehpur

In the sketch in shown the action of 12 July. Nana's troops disputed the road to Kanpur with determination but failed in their object.



Attack on Gwalior Contingent by Windham's force

In November 1857, when Sir Colin Campbell was busy in the relief of Lucknow Residency, Tatya Tope advanced on Kanpur at the head of the Gwalior Contingent of which he had assumed command at Kalpi. General Windham who had been left at Kanpur for the defence of the city attacked Tatya Tope's force on 26 November. Next day the Maratha leader routed Windham's force and on 28 November the English commander was obliged to take shelter in the entrenchment.

Pursuit of the Gwalior Contingent by Sir Colin Campbell

Tatya Tope's success at Kanpur was short-lived as Sir Colin Campbell soon returned to the city. On 6 December the English Commander-in-Chief attacked and defeated Tatya's troops and they fled towards Kalpi pursued by Sir Colin's force.



Ghat at Bithur

Nana Saheb's Bithur met with a dire fate after his defeat. Its palaces and temples were destroyed by the victorious British Army. The main building in the photograph is Sarasteshwar, the *Samadhi* of Saraswati Bai, wife of Bajirao II.



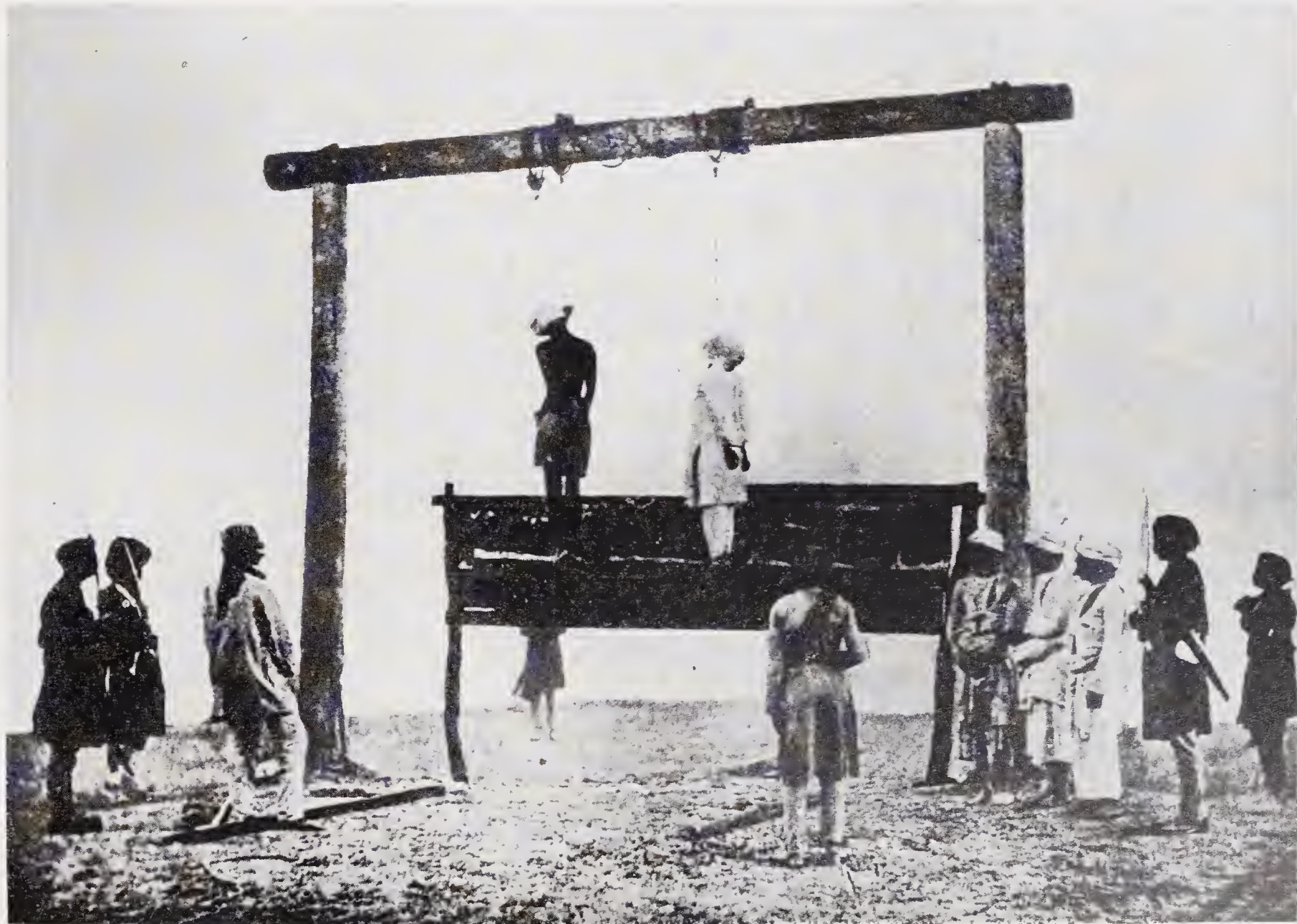
Ruins of Nana's Palace at Bithur



Ejection of Indians from a burning village in Kanpur District

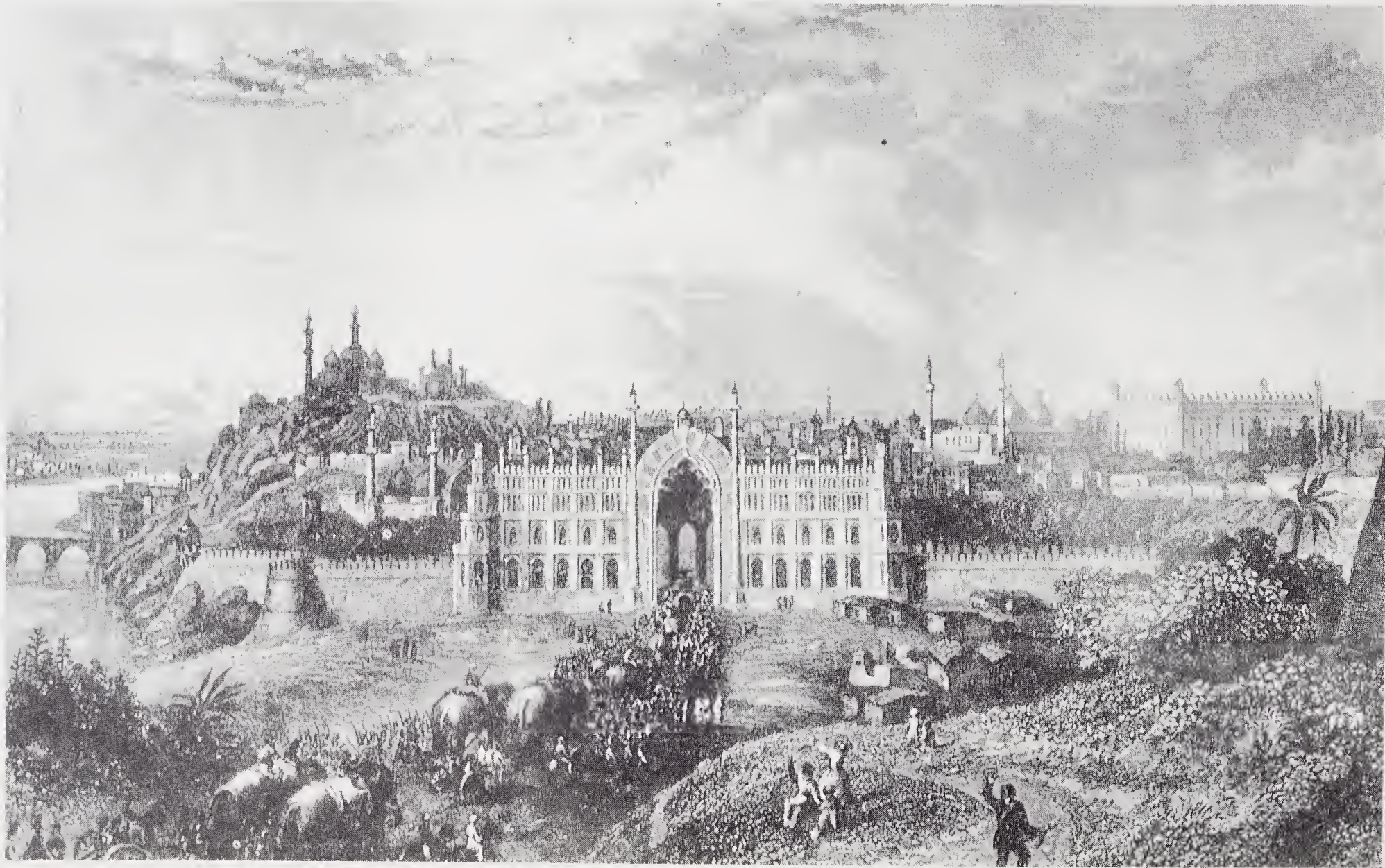
Hanging of two rebels

This was the price which many Indians paid for their struggle for independence in 1857



City of Lucknow

Lucknow was one of the foremost centres of the Indian struggle in 1857-58. It was a city of great beauty, with its many gardens and splendid palaces and mosques.





River View of the buildings at Lucknow

The sketch represents some important buildings on the south side of the river Gomti. These are (from the left) Qadam Rasul, Shah Najaf, Moti Mahal and Chhattar Manzil. All these figured prominently in the events of 1857-58.



Begam Hazrat Mahal

Hazrat Mahal, first wife of the deposed King of Oudh, was a lady of outstanding ability and played a leading role in the struggle for independence. She acted as Regent for her minor son, Birjis Qadr, whom she declared as the successor of his father. She actively participated in the defence of Lucknow and was often seen moving among her troops. When Oudh was reconquered by the English she sought asylum in Nepal and refused to renounce the claims of her son.

Birjis Qadr with his attendants

He was declared Wali of Lucknow and was formally crowned on 6 August 1857.





The Residency, Lucknow

This illustration shows the Residency building as seen before the rising of 1857. It was an imposing three-storied building standing on a plateau. The place was selected by Sir Henry Lawrence for defence and after the outbreak of the revolt he transferred his head-quarters there. The Residency was besieged by the Indian troops in large numbers; but it was ably defended by the British garrison until relieved by Sir Colin Campbell in November 1857.

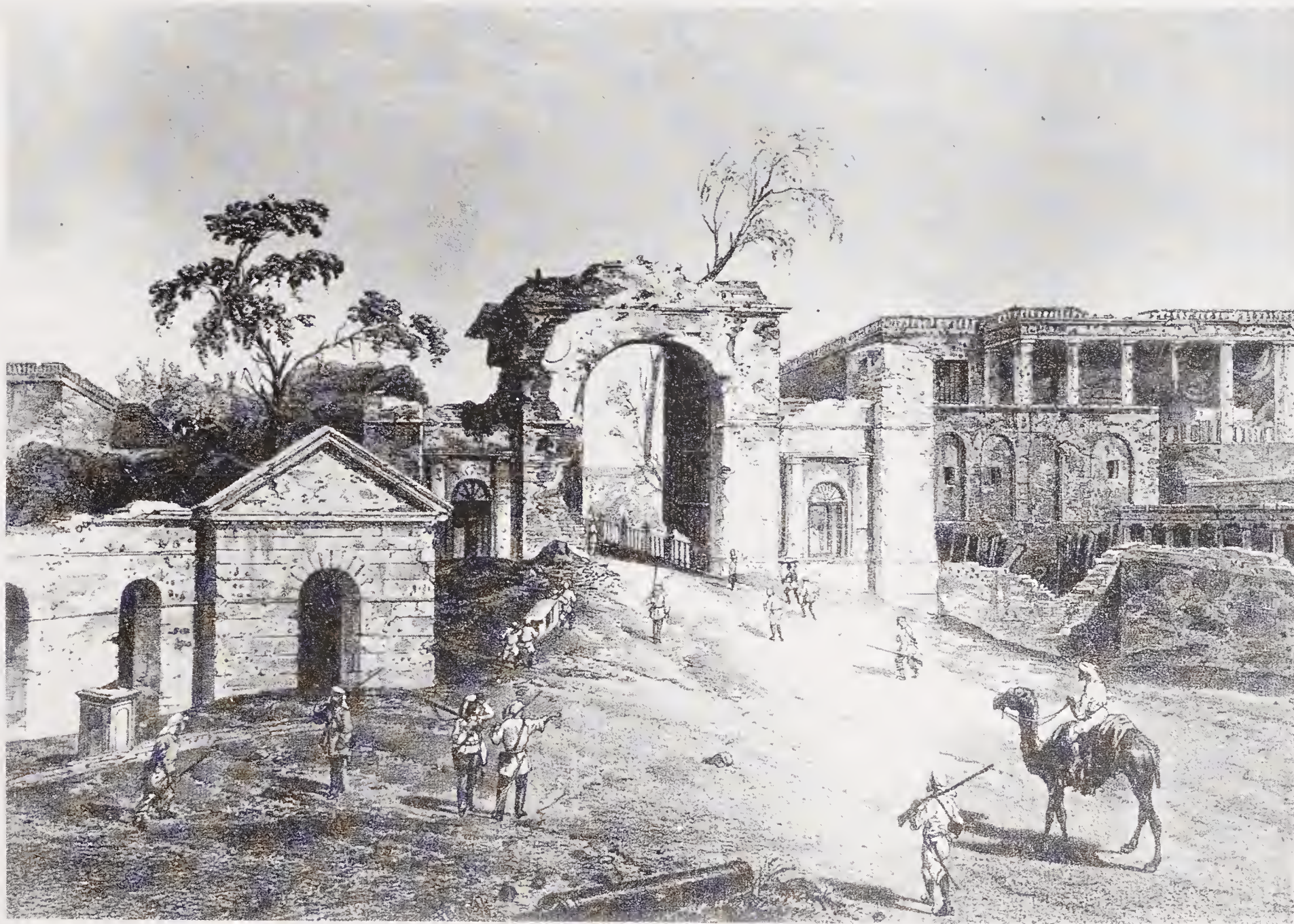


Ruins of the Residency

Interior of the Residency—Billiards Room

The room was in the third story of the Residency building and shells fired from rebel guns entered it from both sides. The sketch shows its dilapidated condition during the siege.





Bailey Guard Gate and Hospital, Residency, Lucknow

This position was one of the main targets of attack by the Oudh troops during the siege.



Interior of Alam Bagh

Alam Bagh was a fortified garden at a distance of about two miles from Lucknow on the Kanpur road. The Sepoys put up a stiff fight here on 23 September 1857 to contest the advance of General Outram's force for the relief of Lucknow. In November when Sir Colin Campbell decided to withdraw from Lucknow he left Outram here with a force of over four thousand men to keep open the road to Kanpur.

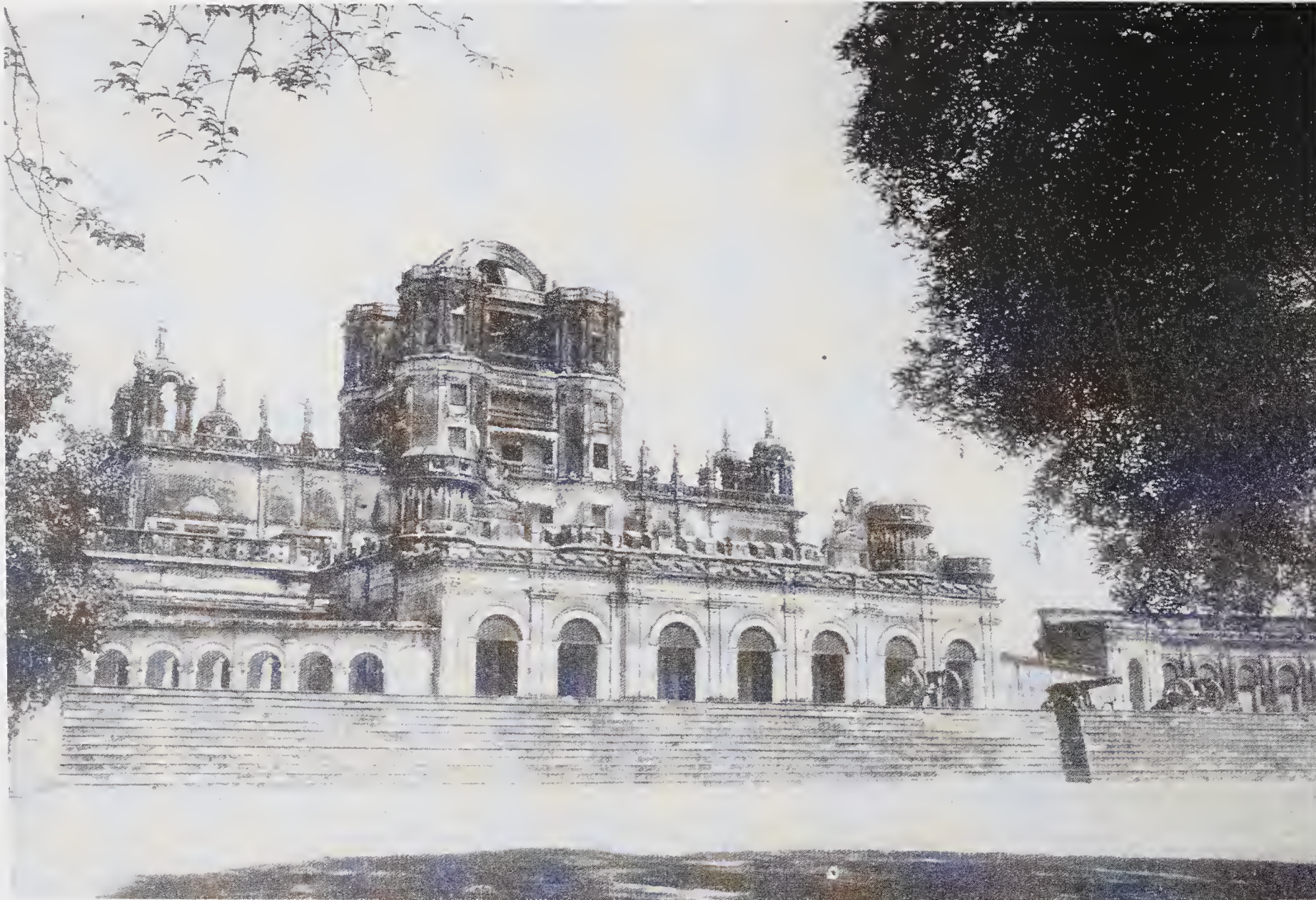
Gate of Alam Bagh





Dilkusha Palace, Lucknow

The palace was built by Nawab Saadat Ali Khan as a hunting residence and there was a large park around it. This position was held by the Sepoys for many months. Sir Colin Campbell's force captured it on 14 November 1857; but the Sepoys regained it on Sir Colin's withdrawal from Lucknow. It was finally taken by the British troops on 3 March 1858.



The Martiniere, Lucknow

Claude Martin, an Italian adventurer in Oudh service, built this imposing edifice and endowed it for a college. Like the Dilkusha Palace this position was also held by the Sepoys and was lost to the English troops on 14 November 1857.

Shah Najaf, Lucknow

This tomb of Ghazi-ud-din Haider, the first King of Oudh, was one of the strong positions of the Oudh troops in Lucknow. On 16 November they defended it with great determination against heavy firing from the English guns. The British troops ultimately succeeded in capturing it by effecting an entrance through a small opening at the back. Shah Najaf was again occupied by the English on 11 March 1858.





Sikandar Bagh, Lucknow

Sikandar Bagh, built by Wajid Ali Shah, was a high walled enclosure of strong masonry, 120 yards square, carefully loopholed all around. The Sepoys who held it in great strength offered resolute resistance here on 16 November 1857. The invading British force captured the place by assault and all the Sepoys defending the garden—nearly 2,000 men were slaughtered by the victorious army.

Interior of Sikandar Bagh

This contemporary photograph shows the place after it fell into the hands of the English.



Moti Mahal, Lucknow

Saadat Ali Khan built Moti Mahal on the southern bank of the Gomti. This place was the scene of heavy fighting during 1857-58. It was captured by Sir Colin Campbell's force on 17 November 1857 and was again taken on 14 March 1858.





Chhattar Manzil, Lucknow

It was one of the main palaces of Lucknow and figured prominently in the struggle of 1857-58. The photograph shows the imposing building as it stands today.



Chakkar Kothi, Lucknow

This place was the key to the rebel position on the left bank of the Gomti. The Sepoys offered courageous resistance here to check the advance of the British troops on the city. It was taken by assault on 9 March 1858 by a column of Sir Colin's force.

Musa Bagh

Musa Bagh, situated on the right bank of the river about four miles to the north-west, was the last stronghold of the rebels in Lucknow. After the fall of the city this position was defended by nearly 9,000 men led by Begam Hazrat Mahal and the Maulvi of Faizabad. Sir James Outram captured it on 19 March 1858, but the rebels were able to make good their escape.





The Times Correspondent looking at the Sacking of Kaiser Bagh

Lucknow, after its recapture by the British, witnessed scenes of wanton destruction and indiscriminate plunder. William Howard Russell, the special correspondent of *The Times*, was then present in the city and has given an elaborate eye-witness account of the sacking of Kaiser Bagh on 15 March 1858. In the sketch is depicted one of the many exciting incidents of the day. A soldier is asking, "Is this string of little white stones (pearls) worth anything, gentlemen?"

Conflict with the Ghazis before Bareilly

In the battle of Bareilly (5 May 1858) a body of Ghazis charged down on the 42nd Highlanders. They were ill-armed and were no match for their opponents. In a swift action they were all bayoneted, and the bodies of 133 Ghazis were left on the battle-field.





Kunwar Singh of Jagdishpur

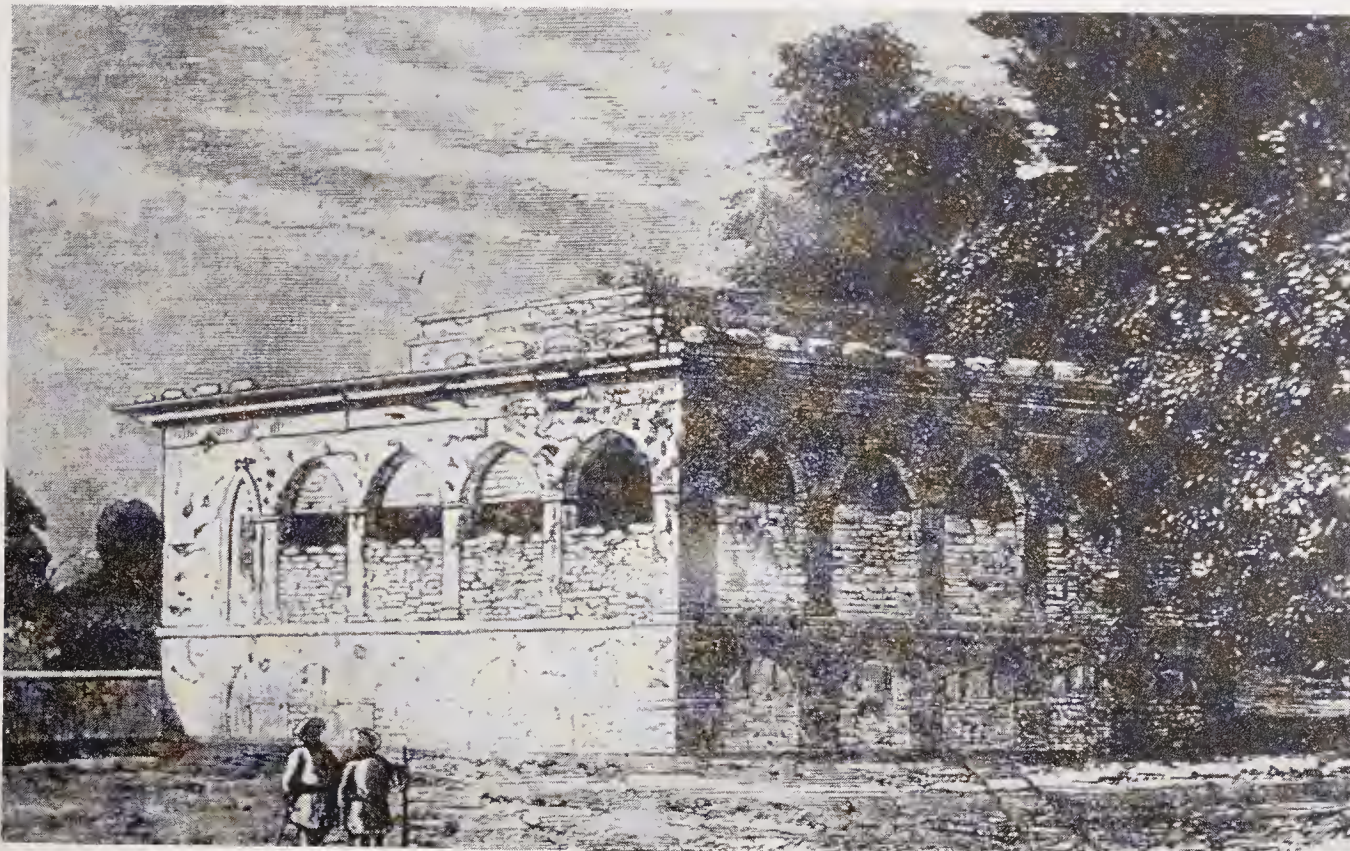
In Bihar, the Revolt of 1857 was led by Babu Kunwar Singh, an old Rajput chieftain of Jagdishpur, in Shahabad district. He placed himself at the head of the Danapur Sepoys who had revolted on 25 July 1957. In spite of military reverses he remained undaunted and continued to defy the foreign rulers. He fought honourably and bravely and ultimately died a victor in his village of Jagdishpur.



Kunwar Singh on a hunting expedition

Kachahry of Kunwar Singh at Jagdishpur

When Jagdishpur was captured by Major Vincent Eyre in August 1857, its palace, temple and other buildings were destroyed. The building of Kunwar Singh's Kachahry, which has survived, has now been acquired by the Government of Bihar.



Boyle's House at Arrah

When the Danapur Sepoys entered Arrah on 27 July 1857 the European and Eurasian residents of the town took refuge in Mr. Boyle's house which had already been put in a state of defence. The siege lasted till 3 August when Arrah was relieved by Major Vincent Eyre.

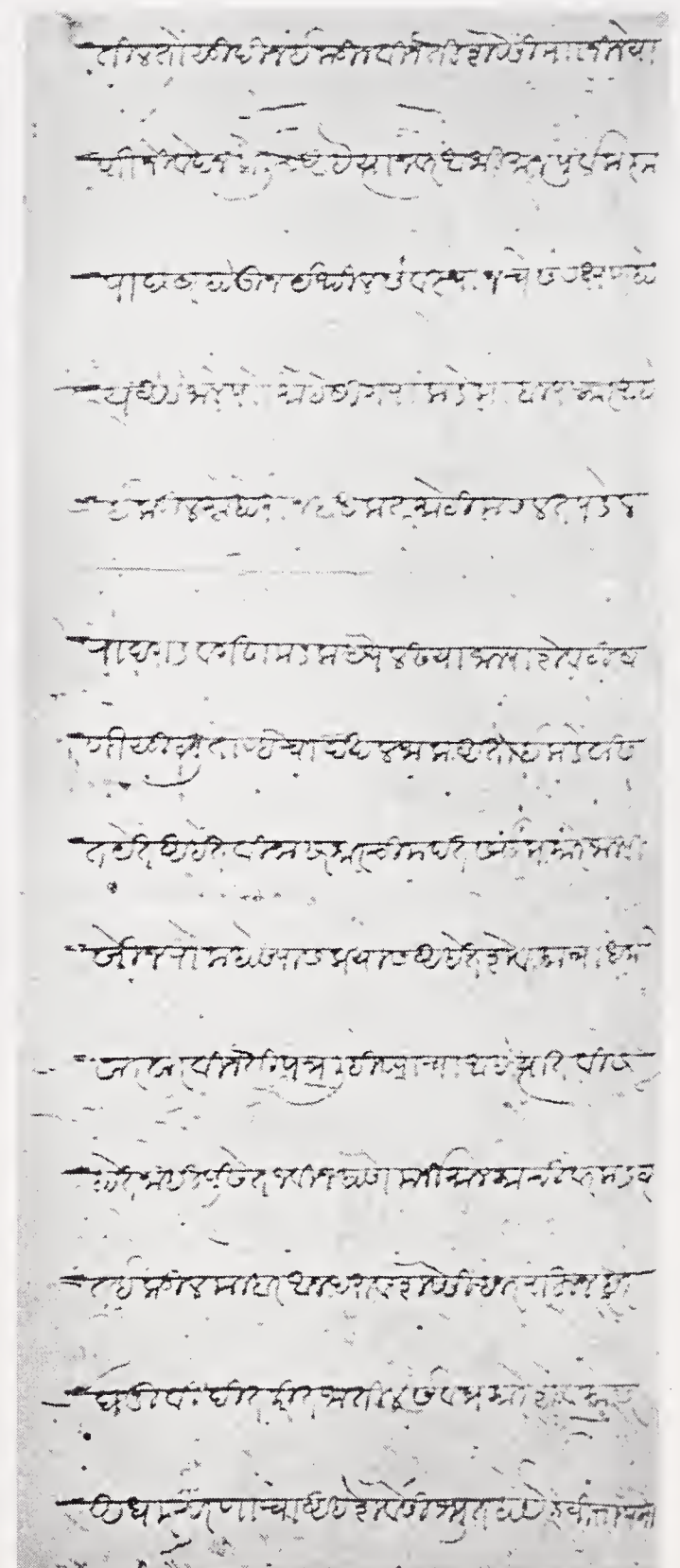
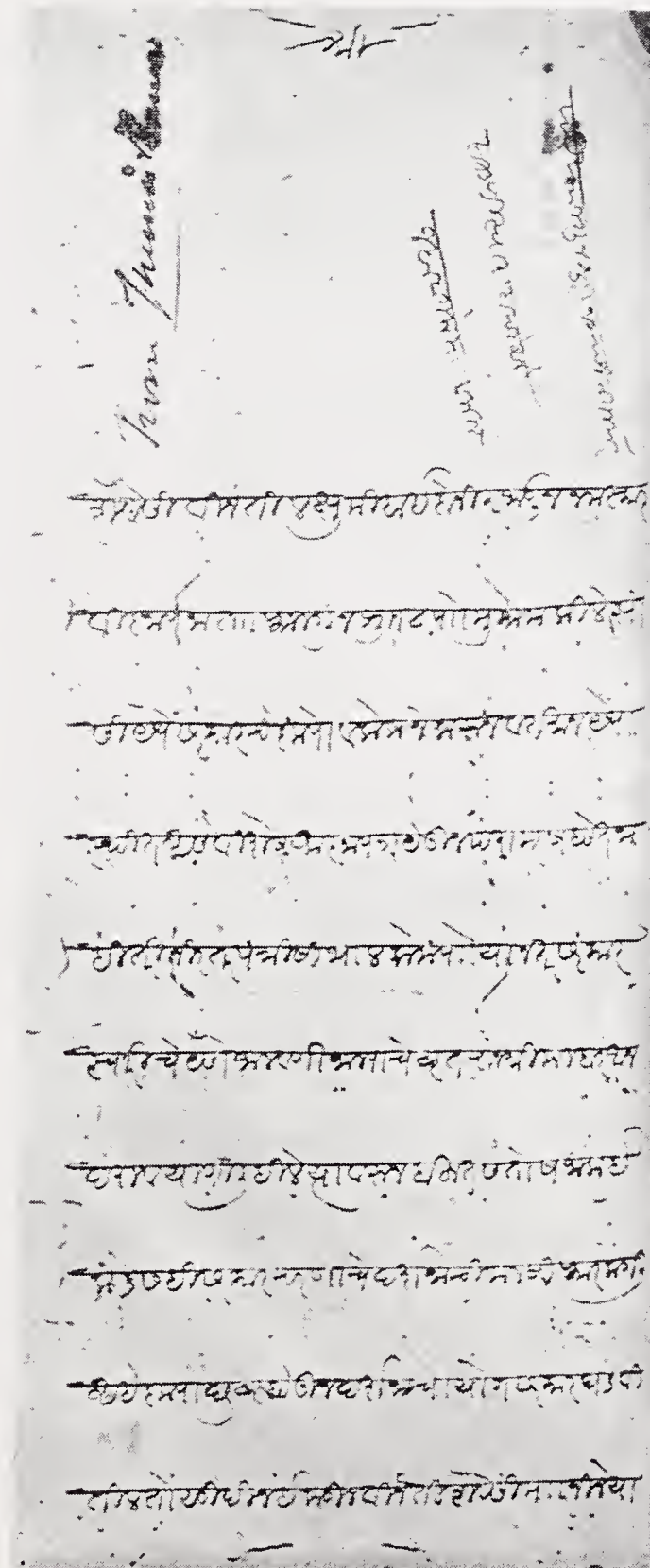


Rani Lakshmi Bai of Jhansi

Lakshmi Bai was one of the most resolute and patriotic leaders of the Revolt of 1857. Her struggle against the alien government was courageous and consistent and she inspired her followers with unbounded enthusiasm and zeal for her cause. When she took over the government of Jhansi, in June 1857, she was hardly twenty-two; but she proved to be a capable organizer and an ideal leader. She reorganized the administration of the State, raised troops and strengthened the defences of Jhansi. She fought with undaunted courage the force led by Sir Hugh Rose and when Jhansi fell she successfully made her escape to Kalpi to continue the struggle. On 17 June 1958, she finally met with a martyr's death at Gwalior. In the words of Sir Hugh Rose, "she was the bravest and the best man on the side of the Mutineers."

This is the facsimile of a Modi letter written by Rani Lakshmi Bai on 8 Falgun (19 February 1858) to Nana's nephew, Rao Saheb, who had made Kalpi his headquarters. In February 1858 the Rani felt urgent need for military assistance from the 'Peshwa' in view of the advance of the British forces towards Jhansi and appealed to Rao Saheb for such help.

The letter was received at Kalpi on 10 Falgun and was found among the papers of the Indian leaders captured there by the British authorities. It is now in the National Archives of India.





Fort of Jhansi

The great fortress of Jhansi, built on an elevation rising out of the plains, defied the attack of the British forces for many days. The siege began on 22 March 1858 and in spite of the superior artillery of the British force they could not occupy it until 4 April. The defenders resisted gallantly. Among them were many women and children.

Kark Bijli Gun

This was one of the guns employed in the defence of the fortress.





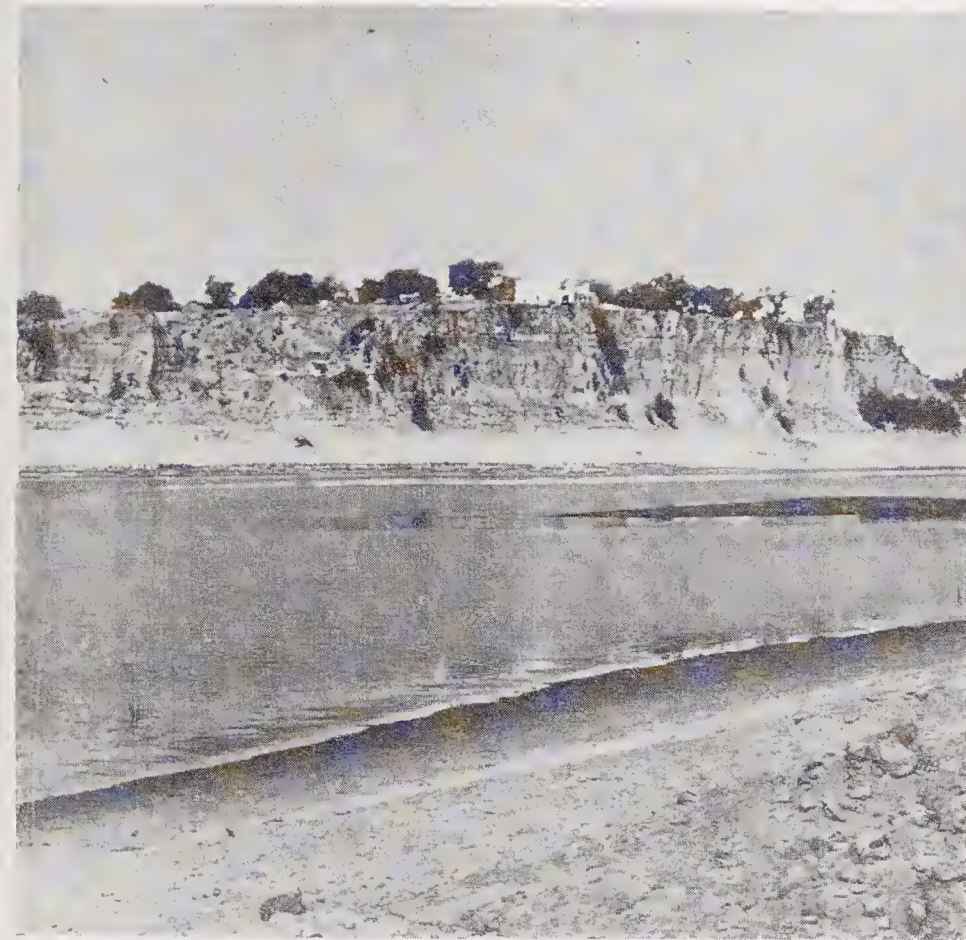
**Rani Lakshmi Bai on
battle-field**

An Indian artist's impression
of the Rani fighting the British
forces at Jhansi.



Rani Mahal, Jhansi

Rani Lakshmi Bai moved into this house after the death of her husband, Raja Gangadhar Rao, and lived here quietly until the standard of rebellion was raised at Jhansi. The old building now houses the Kotwali.



Fort of Kalpi

Kalpi, standing on a precipitous rock that rises from the Jumna, on the right bank of the river, was the last stronghold of the rebels. It became the meeting place of their leaders including Rao Saheb, Tatya Tope, Rani of Jhansi and the Nawab of Banda. Kalpi was evacuated by them on 23 May 1858 after their forces had suffered a number of military reverses.

Pahu Lal's Temple

The Rani of Jhansi lived here during her brief sojourn at Kalpi.

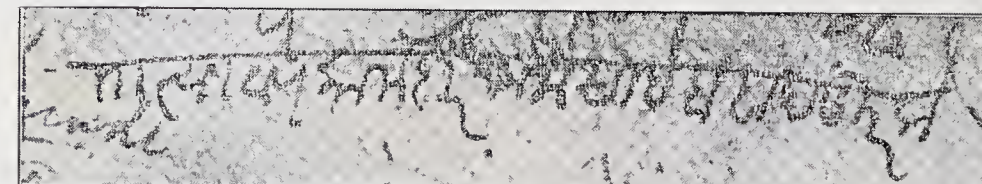




Tatya Tope

Ramchandra Panduranga Tope, or Tatya Tope, as he is popularly known, was one of ablest commanders the English had to fight against in India. The sphere of his action in 1857-58 was wider than that of any other leader of the revolt and he won many victories. In spite of the reverses he suffered he did not lose confidence in himself and attacked his enemies again and again. His most spectacular achievement was his *coup* of Gwalior on 1 June 1858. He was a marvellous guerilla fighter and after his last battle it took the English commanders more than ten months of sustained pursuit before they could lay hands on him. He was finally betrayed by a friend.

This reproduction is from a pencil sketch drawn by Captain C.R. Baugh at Sipri just before Tatya's execution there on 18 April 1858.



Autograph of Tatya Tope

Reproduction from his last statement made during his trial at Sipri.



Tatya Tope's Soldiery

Tatya Tope's army was ill-assorted, but he kept it in constant motion and successfully baffled the English commanders for many months.

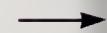


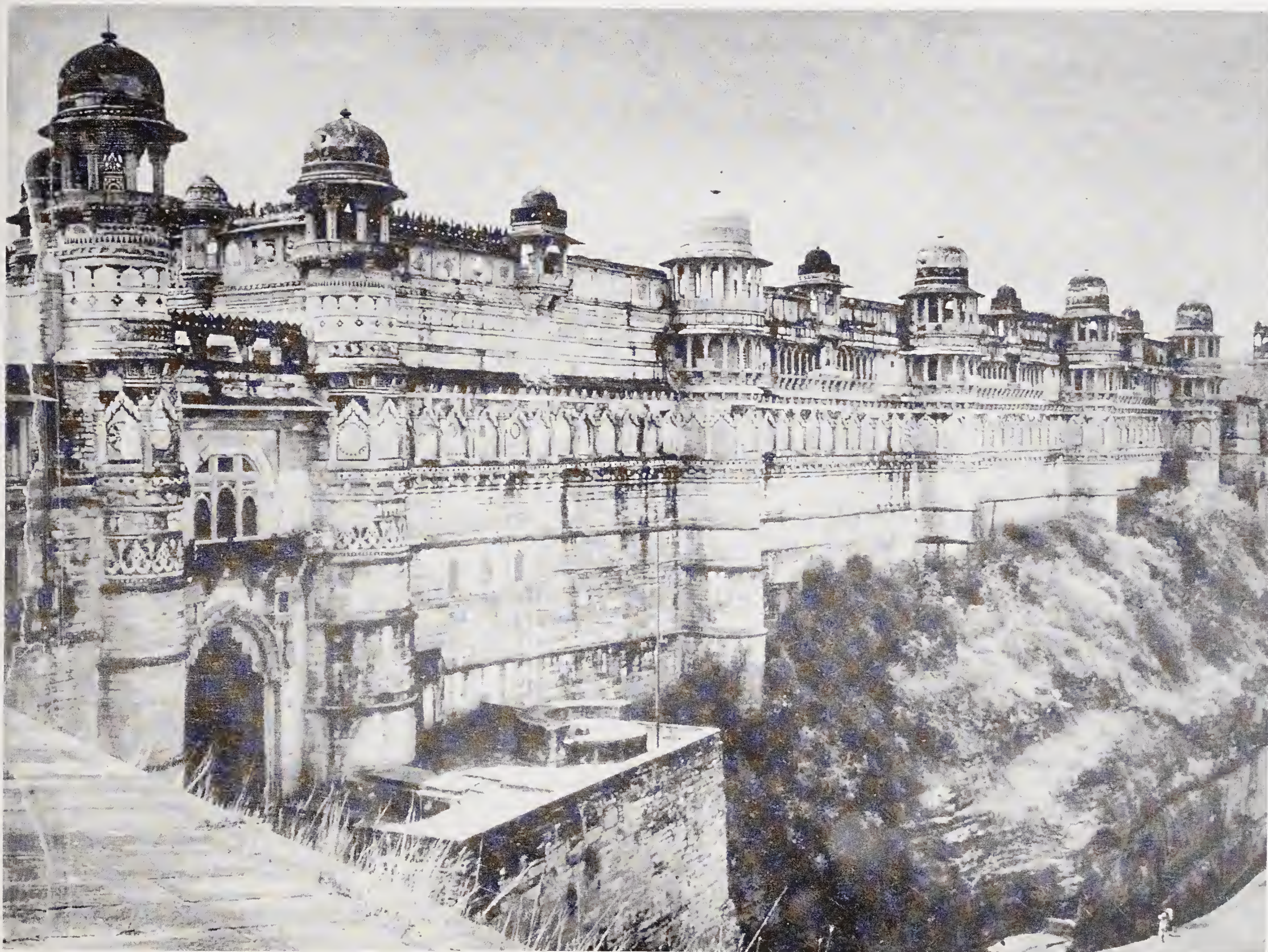
Fort of Gwalior

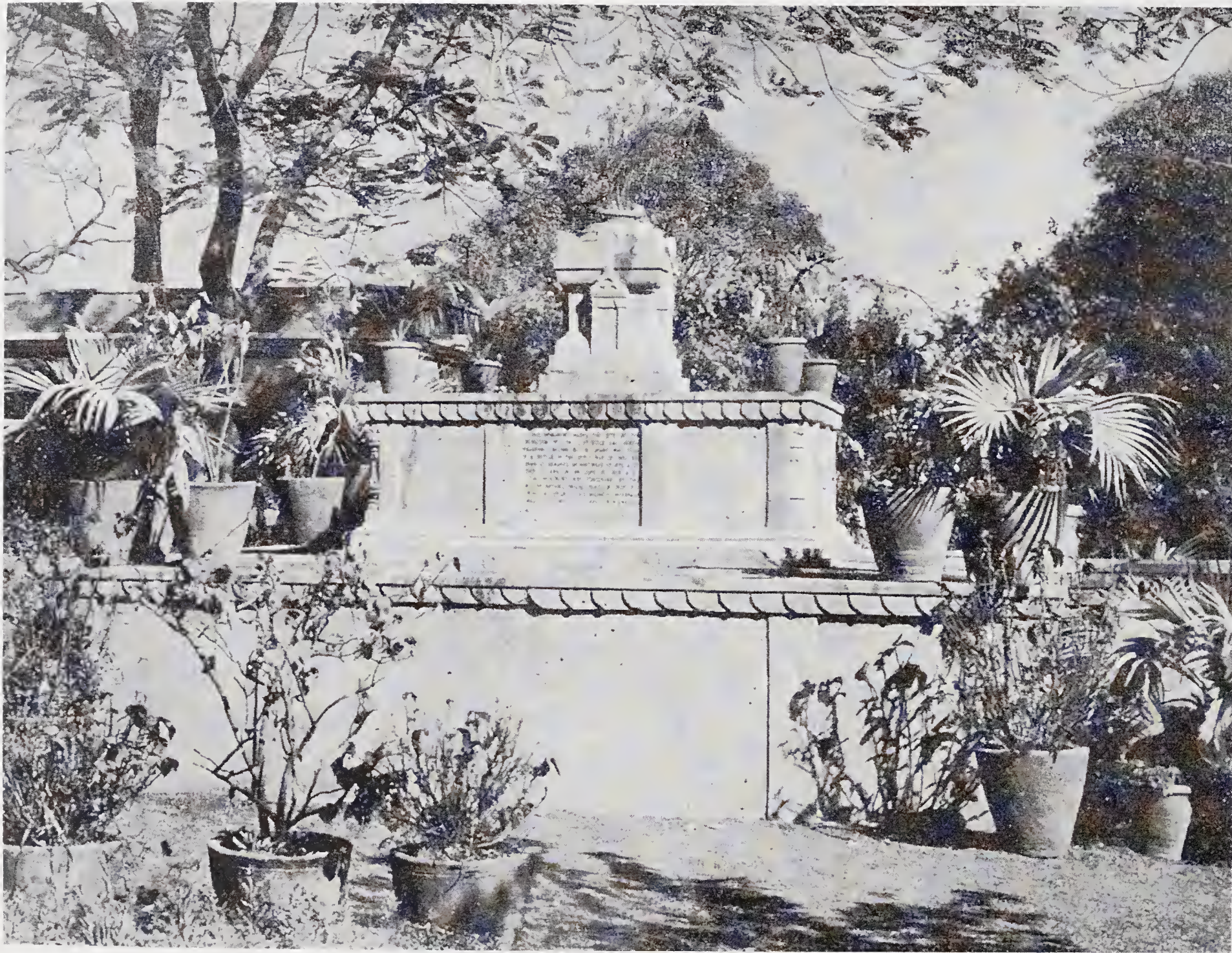
The celebrated hill fortress of Gwalior was captured on 1 June 1858 by the forces led by Rao Saheb, Tatya Tope and the Rani of Jhansi. This was an amazing feat on the part of the leaders who had suffered crushing defeats before evacuating Kalpi. Gwalior fell without a blow and Rao Saheb proclaimed the Peshwa's rule there. The English forces, however did not take long to reach Gwalior. Sir Hugh Rose appeared before the city on 16 June and won the battle of Gwalior three days later. In the fighting on 17 June the valiant Rani of Jhansi died on the battle-field.

Opposite page

**A view of Man Mandir in
the Fort of Gwalior**







Chhattari of Rani Lakshmi Bai

This modest monument marks the hallowed spot where the Rani of Jhansi was cremated on 17 June 1858. Her last rites were hurriedly performed by her followers so that her dead body might not fall into the hands of the enemy.

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